

Pelican Classics

# HUME THE HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

THE REIGNS OF JAMES I AND CHARLES I  
EDITED BY DUNCAN FORBES





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THE PELICAN CLASSICS

THE HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

(The Reigns of James I and Charles I)

DAVID HUME (1711–76) devoted himself from early youth to 'philosophy and general learning'. *A Treatise of Human Nature* (1739–40) 'fell dead-born from the Press', by his own account, but is now regarded as his masterwork. He recast it and added to its teaching in essays, inquiries and dissertations on philosophical, moral, political, economic and literary topics. His historical interests yielded the *History of England* (1754–62), while *Dialogues concerning Natural Religion*, published posthumously in 1779, completed what he had to say about religion. Foiled in an attempt to become a university professor, he was a tutor, judge-advocate, aide-de-camp, librarian, diplomat and, just before enjoying retirement amidst his friends in Edinburgh from 1769, he was a senior civil servant. At one time the object of religious intolerance in Scotland and largely ignored in England, Hume received the adulation of France on arriving there in 1763 as secretary to the British Ambassador. Adam Smith said: 'I have always considered him, both in his lifetime and since his death as approaching as nearly to the idea of a perfectly wise and virtuous man, as perhaps the nature of human frailty will admit.'

DUNCAN FORBES is descended from an Aberdeenshire family which included Beattie, the most famous of all those who 'refuted' Hume, but hopes that he has now made amends. At present he is finishing a study of Hume, Adam Smith, Ferguson, Millar, and other Scottish thinkers of the eighteenth century. Forbes, a lecturer in History at Cambridge University, and Fellow of Clare College, is also the author of *The Liberal Anglican Idea of History* (1952) – a study in the history of history – and of articles (including *The Rationalism of Sir Walter Scott*) on the Scottish Enlightenment. He is the editor of Adam Ferguson's *Essay on the History of Civil Society* 1767 (1966) and has contributed to *Edinburgh in the Age of Reason* (1967).



*David Hume*

THE HISTORY OF  
GREAT BRITAIN

*The Reigns of  
James I and Charles I*



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## INTRODUCTION

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### I

HUME'S *History of Great Britain, Volume One, containing the reigns of James I and Charles I*, was published in 1754. A second volume, published in December 1756, but dated 1757, carried the story to the Revolution in 1688. A second edition, now rare, of the History of the Stuarts, revised and corrected, appeared in 1759. In the same year the *History of England under the House of Tudor* was published in two volumes, and in November 1761 (but dated 1762) two final volumes carried the reader from the invasion of Julius Caesar to the accession of Henry VII. Thus, as Richard Hurd said, Hume, conjuring up the spirit of absolutism, wrote his *History* as witches say their prayers, backwards. In 1763 the *History* was published as a whole, in eight volumes, for the first time.

Hume never went beyond the Revolution, as he had intended originally, but the *History* remained alive in his hands, being continually re-published in revised versions, the last of which appeared in 1778, two years after Hume's death. These revisions are numerous, sometimes stylistic or structural (perhaps it is worth noticing that 'Scotch' becomes 'Scottish'), but sometimes more significant. This is a matter for the specialist, however, and in general it is fairly safe to say that provided Hume's original thesis is properly understood, the changes in the later versions of the *History* do not radically alter, but etch it in more deeply and buttress it with fresh historical evidence, in spite of the impression given to incautious readers by Hume himself, and since often repeated, that he deliberately set out to change a 'Whig' bias into a 'Tory' one. The most important passages of any length to disappear from the 1754 volume, now reprinted (they were removed in the edition of 1759), are the account of the Reformation on pp. 71-3, which had been

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severely criticized as hostile to Protestantism, and the account of the Roman Catholic 'superstition' (which in Hume is a technical term) on pp. 96–9. (For the story of these deletions, and Hume's own defence of his historical treatment of religion, see E. C. Mossner, *Life of David Hume*, 1954, pp. 305–7).

The publication of the first volume of the *History* caused a famous outcry – in 1756 a writer in the *Critical Review* said that ever since its publication it had been the subject of much criticism in private – and at the same time it fell a victim to a well-organized conspiracy of London booksellers. Within a decade however the *History of England* had made its author opulent and had become a popular standard work, which it remained for an exceptionally long time. For instance, C. K. Adams in his large and comprehensive *Manual of Historical Literature* of 1882 says of Hume's *History* that 'this work, written more than a hundred years ago, has enjoyed the rank of a classic in historical literature from the day of its completion to the present time'. It was apparently still being widely read, in spite of dire warnings of bias and unreliability.

In the twentieth century the growth of Hume's repute as a philosopher has followed the eclipse of his fame as a historian. But he is still 'David Hume: Historian' in the great libraries of Britain, a catalogue entry which to modern readers may seem almost as odd as if they were to come across 'Immanuel Kant: Astronomer' or 'Aristotle: Biologist', and an example of what sociologists might call 'lag'. The *History* has long since ceased to be reprinted, and compared with Hume's other writings it has been neglected by modern scholars.<sup>1</sup> Nevertheless, it is a masterpiece; it is essential and vintage Hume. No one can say he knows Hume who is ignorant of the *History*.

It was once a common saying, and writers can still be found repeating it, that Hume 'gave up' philosophy in order to write history, as though that were some kind of second-best or even, some said, an easier way to gain the notoriety

1. But see the Bibliographical Note on p. 55.

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he sought, and won, as a writer. There were many motives, political as well as literary, behind Hume's decision to write a history of England. There was a notorious and shameful gap: 'it is well known that the English have not much excelled in that kind of literature', as Hume wrote in his Appendix\* to the reign of James I; here, in the seventeenth century especially, were events as important as anything in the ancient world and no record of them to equal the classical models Hume admired so much. But he would never have thought of himself as giving up philosophy in order to write history. And to regard him as doing so is to misunderstand grievously both Hume's philosophy and his idea of history. It is due, one suspects, to that old 'Oxford' view of Hume, the Locke-Berkeley-epistemology-only Hume, which presupposes such a narrow and distorted view of a philosophy, which, even at its most technical, is that of a man deeply immersed in politics and history. It has even been suggested that the *History of England* was the result of an accident: the fact that in 1752 Hume found himself, as the Librarian of the Faculty of Advocates, in charge of a great collection of books. No doubt this gave him his opportunity, but there is plenty of evidence that Hume had long planned to write a history. There is mention of 'historical projects' in a letter early in 1747; also memoranda for a British History dated by Hume himself July '45 or '46 still exist, and Mossner believes that 'Hume's interest in composing a national history dates back at least to the period of the *Treatise*' (i.e. 1739-40). After all, the *Treatise of Human Nature* was designed to be a contribution to an empirical science of man, and history was an essential part, a laboratory, of such a science. Given the importance of the 'science of man' in the eighteenth century and before it branched out into all its modern divisions and sub-divisions, history mattered, and was an *avant-garde* subject for intellectuals, as never before or since in the same way.

Unfortunately, historical masterpieces, at least master-

\* What in later editions became the 'Appendix to the reign of James I' is in this edition Chap. VI (pp. 219-53).

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pieces of historical narrative, few as they are, because this seems to be a branch of literature in which the expectation of life is exceptionally low, are and must be very large: they are the pyramids of literature; small ones are inconceivable. Speedier travel was one of the advantages Hume offered his readers. His style is the fastest and smoothest vehicle in historical literature. Whereas in Gibbon the reader often seems, as Virginia Woolf wrote in *Death of the Moth and other Essays*, 'for hours on end mounted on a celestial rocking-horse which, as it gently sways up and down, remains rooted to a single spot,' Hume moves fast on welded rails. 'My narration is rapid ... my model the concise manner of the ancient historians,' he wrote (*Letters of David Hume*, ed. Greig, Vol. I, p. 193). Even so, the whole *History* is very long. And every volume is full of good things; even the medieval section, usually dismissed (unread, no doubt) as the hasty compilation of a man not really interested in the period, is in many ways a remarkable achievement. Hume was at his best (and knew it) where there was controversy, and two rival theories to be considered and weighed, rival views of what happened linked to opposing political philosophies, and an 'establishment' ideology to be corrected, and this was preeminently the case for the seventeenth century, especially the years 1603-49. Hume himself clearly regarded the first volume of his *History* as the best; an opinion endorsed by later critics. The public, he wrote in 1757, may prefer the second Stuart volume because they foolishly regard it as more 'Whiggish', but the first was in his opinion, 'by far the best', because the subject admitted of 'greater nicety of reasoning and more acute distinctions'. After he had finished the Stuarts, Hume did not know whether to go forward or back. There was something of an anti-climax. And in a way all the volumes after the first must have been comparatively an anti-climax. From the practical point of view the first volume was the vital sector on the historiographical front in Hume's campaign to educate the Whigs in political realities, to promote 'moderation' in politics, and provide the Establishment (that is, the Revolu-

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tion settlement, the Union of 1707, the Hanoverian succession) with a respectable, modern, post-revolutionary intellectual basis – all government, as Hume pointed out in a well known saying, being founded on opinion. The first volume is the crucial one, the hinge on which the whole *History* turns.

After all, Hume began with 1603; as a writer before the public, at any rate, he did not originally set out to write a complete history of England from the beginning. (The early drafts of such a history dating from the forties are rather thin and disappointing – not much more than a chronological *aide-memoire*). When he published the *History* as a whole, the first volume became a section of that whole and adjustments were made accordingly. If, therefore, one is not to re-publish the whole *History* – and an anthology of snippets would be an abomination – it seems best to reprint the volume published in 1754, which was designed to stand on its own feet. A further advantage in doing this is that the 1754 volume is not easy to procure, whereas editions of the final revised version are very numerous. Scholars might like to be able to possess a copy of the comparatively rare first edition, while the general reader is not being deprived in any way of anything that is not real vintage Hume.

This edition is virtually identical with the 1754 one, except that ‘f’ has been replaced by ‘s’, the *marginalia* – chiefly dates and repetitions of the chapter headings – have been left out.

## 2. PHILOSOPHICAL HISTORY

Fifty years ago, A. J. Grant, introducing a book of selected passages from English historians, wrote that Hume’s *History*, though eminently readable and worth reading, especially the Stuart part, is ‘now little read’, and a few years later, in 1913, readers of the *Cambridge History of English Literature* were told that ‘no one now reads Hume’s History’. But what was meant in both cases was that it had been superseded, in the technical sense. Gardiner and Ranke had

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ushered in a new age; their works are still the great watershed for the Stuart period of English history. In each, Hume has, so far as I know, one footnote, in which his authority is appealed to on a matter of fact – in Gardiner's *History* it concerns the surrender by James I of the 'cautionary towns' to the Dutch, in Ranke, the execution of Strafford. Much more recently in Godfrey Davies's volume in the *Oxford History of England (The Early Stuarts, 1937)* there is a remark which suggests that the author had some acquaintance in his professional capacity with David Hume, historian, and was not ashamed to be seen in his company. How much this is still the case with the most recent generation of historians of seventeenth-century England, I do not know. A pronouncement in 1968, from Edinburgh, of all places, is not very encouraging. For the author of the final volume of the *Edinburgh History of Scotland*, 'by far the most interesting of eighteenth-century historians was Robert Wodrow, the much-maligned author of *The Sufferings of the Church of Scotland*' – Hume might have enjoyed the irony of this. Modern historians, we are told, 'do not now regard' Hume's *History* as a 'good example of their craft ... for them it suffers from too much philosophy and too little history ...' (One is sorely tempted to quote George II: 'Then I wish he would bite some of my other generals.') Not that there is anything new in such a judgement. One hundred and fifty years ago, the English historian Lingard, one of the most judicious and 'professional' of the historians of his age, undoubtedly included Hume in his denunciation of 'philosophical' history as so much 'romance'.

On the other hand, it seems that not all modern professional historians of seventeenth-century England would endorse the judgement from Edinburgh just quoted. Recently when I happened to mention to one of the more thoughtful of them that I was engaged on an Introduction to Hume's *Stuarts*, his immediate reaction was to say, in all seriousness, that in his opinion, it was still the best general history of the period.

In the 1730s there had come to an end the heroic age of English historical scholarship. Hume, writing *ad populum*,

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distilled the essence of it in his *History*. There is no reason to suppose for a moment that he despised the labours of the great men whose works he used so freely and so intelligently. But he was not and never attempted to be a 'historian's historian'. His *History* is based on printed sources.

Nor is Hume's *History* the work of a man who has himself struggled in the arena of national politics. He was no recluse; he had some first-hand experience of war (real war, not Gibbon's militia training) and diplomacy; that he was always passionately interested in politics is shown by his letters and his friends, some of whom were close to the centre of things. But his *History* is essentially the work of a detached thinker, looking on. Thoughtfulness is its special quality: it is the most intellectual, the most *gedankenreich*, narrative history in the language. 'Perhaps the acutest intellect ever applied to English history,' it has been said; an intellect, too, that had applied itself to a huge range of subjects in the 'science of man', from political economy and demography to the psychology of religion. What is unique about Hume's *History* is that it is the work of a philosopher of such eminence. No other philosopher of Hume's stature has written a large narrative history which is a classic of historical literature in its own right. Therefore how good an example of the 'historian's craft' Hume's *History* is need not, perhaps, worry the modern reader too much: there are excellent examples of that craft from which he will get no amusement and little instruction, and notoriously bad examples from which he may learn a great deal.

Readers of the *History*, however, who come to it for the first time, should be warned that its intellectual quality and thoughtfulness is not immediately obvious, and indeed it is only when one knows Hume's other writings fairly well that one can fully appreciate just how much thought lies behind the deceptively plain narrative. The point is well made by J. B. Black. 'As a philosophical and speculative historian', he writes,

Hume is, on a first perusal, somewhat disappointing. . . . To the uninitiated reader he appears in the guise of an eminently attractive historian who places facts above theories, and concen-

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trates on the prime duty of telling a plain tale in a plain and edifying way. It is only when the *History of England* is read with a critical eye that the immense amount of thought involved in it becomes apparent, and the reader realizes that what seemed to be a simple, straightforward narrative of fact is really a highly polished and skilfully articulated philosophy of history.

Black goes on to say that one cannot discover the 'true bearings of the history' and appreciate its virtues and vices until one has managed to separate the history and the philosophy. But the understanding of Hume's philosophy is a very much less simple affair now than in 1926, when Black was writing, and the roads leading from the philosophy to the *History* are by no means so direct and easy to follow as used to be thought. There are aspects of that protean and at times exasperating philosophy that taken by themselves might lead one to expect a quite different sort of history to the one actually written. And, for example, to explain the character sketches in the *History* in terms of Hume's crude, 'mechanical' psychology is a waste of ingenuity, at best, if such an interpretation of Hume's psychology is itself oversimplified and misleading.

But when contemporaries described Hume's *History* as 'philosophical', they were not referring to the philosophy expounded in the *Treatise* and *Enquiries*, which they did not understand anyway. 'Philosophical history' was a special eighteenth-century *genre*, and could mean a number of different things. Thus Hume's *History* was 'philosophical' in so far as it satisfied and helped to create the demand for the 'new history' as practised, more successfully in the opinion of most critics, by Voltaire: the history of 'government, manners, finances, arms, trade, learning', without which, wrote Hume in his Appendix to the reign of James I, 'history can be little instructive, and often will not be intelligible'. In the opinion of John Hill Burton, Hume's nineteenth-century biographer, this was the 'chief service' of his *History of England*, and what he says of Hume in this respect is on the whole true: that he was the 'first to divert attention from wars, treaties and successions to the

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living progress of the people in all that increases their civilization and their happiness'. Hume's 'characters' of British authors, such as they are, would, if collected together, constitute, as Mossner says, the first 'History of English Literature' ever printed. This was certainly something new, and entertaining, in English historiography.

Hume has been much criticized for his handling of these matters: for bundling them together in a rather haphazard fashion in 'Appendices' and 'Miscellaneous Transactions' scattered throughout the *History*. But this is a weakness in the organization of the material rather than a failure to appreciate the interconnectedness or *Zusammenhang* of things, political, economic and moral, because in fact the *History* as a whole has as its central theme and unifying principle – in spite of Leslie Stephen's complaint that he could discover no such thing – the progress of civilization. However, in spotlighting this theme, one is throwing into relief the essentially political orientation and nature of the *History*; and this is not a paradoxical remark, because for Hume 'civilization' is essentially a political concept, meaning law and order, or 'liberty', and the history of civilization is the history of 'liberty' and the conditions which make 'liberty' possible: especially economic progress and the rise of the 'middling rank' of men.

As a primarily political history, Hume's *History* is 'philosophical' in another sense: as an extension of his political philosophy; and it is as such, the carrying on of political philosophy by other means, that some would judge the *History* to be perennially valuable. This, they would say, is the enduring steel skeleton of the building, and this is what Hume had in mind when he said that the reigns of the first two Stuarts gave the philosopher especially good opportunities for nice reasoning and acute distinctions. Here are to be found those great set-piece debates, which are such a striking feature of the work, in which, at crucial points in the story, Hume sets out the arguments on both sides, royalist and popular. These are, as Jeffrey later pointed out, what they are meant to be, a kind of 'conjectural' history,

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presenting not what was actually said or thought at the time, but the most cogent arguments that a philosopher, looking back, could put into the mouths of the protagonists. They belong to political philosophy, not history.

Stripped of its subtleties, the gist of Hume's thesis is simple enough: that liberty is the 'perfection of civil society', but without authority you cannot have liberty at all. The fact that the British Constitution has, as a matter of history, been improved by 'violent innovations' is no argument for violent innovation. 'It is seldom that the people gain anything by revolutions in government.' That, in a few sentences, is the ground theme of the history of the Civil War and the events leading up to it as a lesson of moderation in politics. Not that Hume could have expected this particular lesson to be of much direct practical use, because the fact that the desire for liberty went too far after 1641, with fatal consequences for liberty itself, was, as Hume saw it, mainly due to religious fanaticism – and this, for Hume, is an entirely unaccountable phenomenon which can neither be foreseen nor provided against.

Finally, Hume's *History* was 'philosophical' in so far as it exemplified those principles of human nature which are unchanging: political psychology as such. In this respect the *History* was a kind of X-ray photograph of the political, including 'religious', passions: the power of habit as also the effect of novelty on the imagination and the 'contagion' of example, the fact that 'the people are always most affected by what is external and exposed to the senses', the political consequences of 'superstition' and 'enthusiasm', and so on.

Hume's *History* is unmistakably a product of the eighteenth century Enlightenment, though one hopes that such a remark will not conjure up the sort of stereotype of the 'Age of Reason' which has done so much to distort and over-simplify the thought of a difficult and complex age. But as Ruskin said of Gothic, though the historian of architecture finds it difficult to arrive at a satisfactory definition, everyone recognizes it when he sees it. No one seeking the 'poetry of history' is going to look for it in Hume; no one

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will expect to find much regard for local colour, or any mention of Divine Providence, or any appreciation of mediæval culture (literature and science were in their ‘infancy’ in the reign of James I); or to experience the *frisson historique*, or the *frisson* of national sentiment or pride of race. The reader will not expect to be hurled into the midst of events, or made to share the thoughts and feelings of the actors in the historical drama; he will not expect these events to be very vividly described, nor will he go to Hume for ‘unforgettable portraits’ or characters that come ‘alive’, and remembering what this has meant in some histories, he may be thankful for Hume’s restraint, or the oft-criticized inadequacies of his psychology. It is something to be spared the ‘slobbering’ of James I. In fact, when one considers the lack of so many of the features usually associated with popular history, it is surprising that Hume’s should have remained popular for so long, right into the age of Scott, Carlyle and Macaulay. Hume must be the least romantic of all the historians who ever ‘presumed to shed a generous tear for the fate of Charles I and the Earl of Strafford’. It is true, setting aside political considerations, that Hume could ‘tell a story’, as Macaulay said<sup>2</sup> – praise indeed from such a source – and there was the celebrated style, which, as has been seen, had the tremendous advantage of speed; an elegant but unobtrusive style, which, if it is true that the historian should write well, but not too well, is almost perfect, and which, as J. H. Millar pointed out, in *The Mid-Eighteenth Century* (1902), no one has ever parodied, as many have attempted to parody Johnson and Gibbon. But ‘cold’ is an adjective often associated with that style: ‘polished as marble, but cold as marble too’, in Buckle’s words, and it is not only the style: the author is so obviously looking on, unmoved, with those eyes that could offend strangers with their disconcerting, vacant stare, though Hume, at least after his lean and earnest youth, was the most sociable of men – ‘the nicest man who ever scuttled a creed’. But cool detachment is a notable feature of the

2. In the essay on Sir James Mackintosh.

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history, mirrored in the style; and it is not enough to explain this merely in terms of the 'classicism' of the 'age of reason.' For one thing, the *History* was purposely designed to bring down political temperatures. But there are other more far-reaching and more significant aspects of this detachment and coolness.

### 3. THE EUROPEAN CONTEXT

Hume's *History* is just over two hundred years old. Of course, in many ways it is primitive, technically. But the study of history does not advance in a straight line and on a single front; historical understanding and insight and technical expertise do not necessarily go hand-in-hand. There are recent examples: the 'namierization' of party politics in the reign of Queen Anne, certain phases in the notorious 'rise of the gentry' controversy, have shown how new techniques can lead scholars astray. What G. M. Trevelyan (in *Clio, a Muse*) once called the 'doctrine of the permanent value of great historians' may help to break the magic spell cast by exciting new techniques, which can imprison the mind as surely as old prejudices. Reading old history can help one to escape the tyranny of new, and be a useful cerebral hygiene.

And if Hume is primitive in some respects as a historian, he is in others highly sophisticated, and in some fundamental matters very much closer to our way of thinking than we are to those nineteenth century exponents of the Whig interpretation of history: Brodie, Hallam, Macaulay and others, including even the great Gardiner, who made it their task to rescue English history from Hume's 'Tory' bias. The presuppositions of the classical Whig interpretation of history belong to a vanished age. It is dead, though like Buddha, it continues to cast a shadow, fainter now than formerly, owing among other things to the well-known diagnosis and ministrations of Sir Herbert Butterfield. Therefore we ought to be able to sympathize more readily with Hume's cool and 'sceptical' Whiggism than with the less

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sceptical varieties, especially that nineteenth-century brand, with its assumption of an England far in the van of the world's moral and political progress. 'England', writes Gardiner,

was then [in 1613] as she has always been, decidedly in advance, so far as political institutions are concerned, of the other nations of Europe. She had to work out the problem of government unaided by experience, and was entering like Columbus upon a new world where there was nothing to guide her but her own high spirit and the wisdom and virtue of her sons. (S. R. Gardiner: *History of England*, Vol. II, 1883, p. 197).

The Anglo-centric pride and confidence behind this remark – many other examples could be given – have ebbed away.

In Hume's day, when Whiggism was insular and parochial and lacked, as yet, the philosophy and ethic of 'progress', Englishmen prided themselves on the contrast between English 'liberty' and continental, especially French, 'slavery' – even Hume could talk like this. But it is loose talk in Hume. Scotland has always been the most European of all the communities of Europe. Hume was a Scotsman, a 'citizen of the world', a good European. He loved France. And he was also a political scientist, dispassionately weighing the advantages and disadvantages of contemporary forms of government – absolute monarchies, republics, the English 'mixed' form of government – in a detached, clinical manner, and like a good 'Newtonian', drawing for his political philosophy, not on one form of political experience only, but on as many as possible, 'gleaning up experiments' from all quarters.

In Hume's view of things England's departure from the European norm was not the splendid isolation of rectitude or leadership along the road of free political institutions, followed at a distance by all the nations of the world as they become more enlightened. He saw the British Constitution as 'happy', but he saw it also as 'singular': 'that singular and happy government which we enjoy at present'. Later, in 1772, he wrote that he had wanted to remove the words 'and happy' but gave directions to the printer to let them stay;

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after all, he wrote, the British government is certainly happy, though not calculated for duration, by reason of its excessive liberty. 'Singular' in this context is not like the 'hurrah' word 'matchless', so often used in connexion with the British constitution at this time. A study of Hume's political science shows that the uniqueness of the British form of government was, in some important respects, a matter of concern and anxiety for him, rather than congratulation.

The British constitution was uniquely free, certainly, but in Hume's political philosophy 'Justice' not 'Liberty' is the end of government as such, unless 'Liberty' is taken to mean the personal liberty and security of individuals under the rule of law, not political liberty; in which case it is virtually the same as 'Justice', though strictly speaking 'Justice', as expounded in Book III of the *Treatise*, means certain basic rules regarding property without which any sort of society is impossible. And the object of government as such in Hume's theory of political obligation was attained not only in England, but in the 'civilized monarchies' of the continent also, which for all practical purposes, Hume thought, were equally governments 'of laws, not men'. In England one had an extreme form of this liberty, because the English 'mixed' form of government was such that the executive could be allowed no discretionary powers; the rule of law was thus absolute to a degree that was not found in the republics of Europe, let alone the absolute monarchies. So England had 'the most perfect system of liberty', but not 'the best form of government', because, for one thing, the absence of discretionary powers might prove dangerous in times of crisis and seriously hamper a government in the necessary exercise of its duties. When Hume, at the time of the Wilkes riots, said that the English had too much liberty, this is what he meant. Taken out of the context of his political science it sounds like the petulant outburst of a 'reactionary'; seen in that context it appears as the precise statement of a student of comparative politics. The British form of government had other inherent and necessary

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disadvantages: political parties were an unavoidable evil, and so also was the system of 'dependence' or Crown patronage, so violently attacked by opposition moralists as 'corruption', but without which the Commons would be all-powerful and the government cease to be 'mixed' and become wholly republican.

Hume's political philosophy, unlike Locke's, was designed to include the absolute monarchies of the continent. There was an insularity and parochialism about what Hume called 'the fashionable system' of politics that he regarded as a *reductio ad absurdum*; as, for instance, when Locke wrote that 'absolute government is inconsistent with civil society, and so can be no form of civil society at all'. There was clearly something wrong, in the eyes of a philosopher appealing to experience, with a theory of political obligation that ruled out one of the largest, most populous and civilized nations in Europe. And a theory that, by founding government on popular consent, placed the right of resistance in the forefront of political speculation, as did the contract theory and Locke's theory of government, was outmoded and backward-looking in a post-revolutionary age, in which the challenges and opportunities were economic, and the old controversies and loyalties, religious and secular, irrelevant. Hume, coming from a small, self-consciously 'backward' nation on the threshold of a new era of unheard-of prosperity, and belonging to the class that provided the pioneers and leaders of 'improvement' – the lairds – set out to modernize the political thinking of the British 'Establishment'. The right of resistance, he insisted, is something that need never be openly preached or theorized about in normal circumstances: it is an extreme remedy for extreme cases of 'egregious' tyranny, like Nero's, and when it is really needed men will not wait for theorists. Hume is so well known for his critique of contract theory and as the hammer of the Whigs that it is easy to forget that he was operating on two fronts, and trying to convince Jacobite 'malcontents' that their opposition to the established régime could not be justified, and was immoral.

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In the light of Hume's politics – modern, economically orientated and Europocentric – the notion, beloved of Whigs and patriotic Englishmen, repeated in a thousand poems, pamphlets, books and conversations, of an unbridgeable gulf between the 'matchless' constitution and English liberty and French 'slavery', becomes so much 'political rant', which is how Hume described talk of the 'tyranny' of the absolute monarchs. The 'civilized monarchies' of Europe were all perfectly legitimate forms of government: the end for which government had been set up was realized on both sides of the Channel. 'Liberty', in so far as that meant the rule of law, was not an exclusively English, but a European phenomenon, and in so far as England's achievement of liberty represented a 'perfection' not found elsewhere, it was necessarily connected with a form of government which had its own special disadvantages and dangers.

Hume's *History of England* is no more Anglocentric than the political philosophy of which it is an offshoot. It is perhaps the most essentially European of all the classic narrative histories of England. Its author was a cosmopolitan Scot and Francophile, very angry on one occasion when called an Englishman (though admittedly this was at a time when abuse of Scotsmen was ammunition in English party-politics). He tried to write the pure English which he could never speak, and was anxious to remove all Scotticisms from his style, but then he thought that English was to be the Latin of the future, destined to take the place of French as a metropolitan language of learning and culture, in spite of the present diffusion of the latter, owing to 'our solid and increasing establishments in America' (*Letters*, II, 170–1).

Hume's *History* is not a national history; it ignores the national 'setting': climate, geography, race, national character, regional variety (contrast Michelet, for example). It is not the history of a peculiar culture or people, or of a liberty which is the fine flower of such a culture and such a people, or of a peculiar legal tradition (which was alien to Hume as a Scot). It is not a history of English civilization, but of civilization in England; the progress of civilization and

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'liberty' is a European, not an exclusively English theme. Perhaps this is why Leslie Stephen could find no central theme at all in Hume's *History*. Given an exclusively English viewpoint, there is no central theme, since Hume did not subscribe to the idea of an ancient English constitution, lost and finally re-won in 1688: for him there was no single 'ancient constitution', but a series of different ones.

This Europocentricity of Hume's *History of England* is not obvious to the reader of the Stuart volumes alone – it is only thrown into relief when all Hume's writings on politics are considered together. Since it was in the seventeenth century that England arrived at her present 'singular' form of government, the Stuart volumes concentrate attention on the eccentricity which Whigs then and later took as the norm, but which for Hume is a divergence from the European norm due to historical accidents and special circumstances, such as England's insular position, which made a standing army unnecessary. Hume's view of the seventeenth-century scene is thus far removed from that of the great 'Whig' histories of the nineteenth century, and more akin to, say, that of Professor J. P. Kenyon as recently expressed in the Introduction to his *The Stuart Constitution: Documents and Commentary* (Cambridge, 1966): '... the revolution of 1688 stamped England as a wildly eccentric country outside the mainstream of European political development.' Hume's 'sceptical' whiggism, compounded of many elements, including the clinical detachment of the political scientist, the lack of patriotic pride in English institutions, dislike of chauvinism, especially when directed against France, absence of belief in 'progress' and England's moral and political leadership thereof, was bound to lead to a view of the conflict of King and Commons in the seventeenth century different from that held by more orthodox 'Whigs', then and later, a more sceptical and historically more fruitful view. It was easier to believe that the Stuart kings of England – the first two especially – were not unforgivably wicked tyrants, opposed by the whole Kingdom, as though 'liberty' and 'the nation' were a natural equation in the very

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scheme of things. (For Hume, writing before 1789, the nation as a whole is essentially inert, and even when swept by sudden gales of passion, as passive as a cornfield in a wind: the cause of true 'liberty' was represented by a tiny minority of exceptional men).

### 4. LIBERTY AND THE ANCIENT CONSTITUTION

This is not the place to try to sort out all the varieties and nuances of the 'Whig' interpretation of the struggle in the seventeenth century, but the essence of it seems to be that English liberty is in some way ancient and continuing, so that there was something more or less legal, fixed and definite for the Stuarts to 'subvert'. This sort of continuity is lacking in Hume's *History*, because liberty, strictly speaking, that is, for the political scientist, is modern, and appears on the scene as the result of a series of accidents and more general causes so recent that the historian, provided he sketches in the latter, can begin with the accession of the House of Stuart in 1603. (After the outcry against the first volume, Hume regretted that he had not begun with the Tudors: an account of their 'despotic' government would have spiked the Whig guns in advance.) Thus English liberty is not only eccentric to the European norm in the present, it is also cut off from a medieval past in which, according to Hume, England's political experience was European, and not unique. For Hume continuity is provided by the fact that the Stuarts inherited the almost despotic authority of the Tudor sovereigns: this for Hume was the 'ancient constitution' so far as the seventeenth century was concerned.

But for Whigs, patriotic Englishmen and continental Anglophiles, England's uniqueness was different; for them, it was a source of pride that England alone had maintained and 'renewed' the ancient liberties which the freedom-loving invaders of the Roman Empire had brought from the forests of Germany. There are echoes of this in Hume's *History*, as there are echoes of other good, non-sceptical, Whig senti-

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ments in all Hume's writing. He too could talk of 'a great and civilized nation deliberately vindicating its established privileges' in 1688 (the context is the deposition of Richard II), thus contradicting what he said in the essay on the Original Contract about the Revolution of 1688 being the work of a tiny minority and the nation not being consulted; for him, too, 'the German nations restored liberty to mankind'; the feudal magnates of Magna Carta were 'generous barons', which is closer to Hallam than to the undoubtedly and militantly Whig, but more consistently 'philosophical', historian John Millar, for whom the barons were selfish feudal magnates and no more. In fact, Hume had originally accepted the 'Whig' view of the 'public transactions of the last century' which 'on more accurate examination', he 'found reason to retract' in his *History of Great Britain*. 'These mistakes were at that time almost universal in this kingdom.' (This note was appended to all editions of the essay on the *Parties of Great Britain* after that of 1758.) He had described Rapin, whose *History of England*, translated from the original French in the late 1720s, had almost immediately become a standard work in this country, as 'the most judicious of our historians'. That is, Hume had originally believed that Rapin's *History* was not another 'Whig' history, but a truly impartial one, though it lacked elegance and was not worthy to compare with the models of classical antiquity, because Rapin, in his anxiety to prove his absence of bias and to let the reader judge the evidence for himself, continually interrupts his narrative to insert huge chunks of it in its original documentary form. Otherwise, style and Rapin's belief in Providential guidance apart, it is not difficult to see why Hume thought so highly of his *History*. Rapin had been a foreigner writing for foreigners, in Holland, and although a Huguenot exile from France who had served under William III, was sufficiently detached in his attitude to the Whigs and Tories to be critically aware of the bias of his sources, and not ashamed to confess ignorance on certain disputed points. In a manner that Hume would have appreciated, he states the pros and

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cons of a controversy; indeed on one occasion, he used the technique of stopping the narrative (in 1621) and imaginatively reconstructing the arguments of both sides that Hume was later to employ so brilliantly in his *History*. He was also strongly and consistently anti-clerical.

Rapin's sophisticated and intelligent history deserved its reputation. He was, as Macaulay said of Hallam, 'eminently judicial', and like Hallam's, his interpretation is unmistakably Whig. Rapin's impartiality was like that of the militant Whig historian Oldmixon, who said that anyone writing on the side of the Constitution could not fail to be impartial. As Rapin saw it, the maxims and projects of the first two Stuarts were the root cause of the Civil War, because they were destructive of the Constitution. Otherwise the Puritan minority could have made no headway. James I, with his new-fangled doctrine of divine, hereditary right, began a dispute between king and commons which gave rise to the two parties who 'worry one another to this day'. He was 'continually endeavouring to establish Principles, the consequences whereof tended to no less than to subvert the constitution of the government', and his son pursued the same policy, only with more vigour. These 'principles' were innovations, alien to the constitution, 'different from what had passed current hitherto'. Bolingbroke, defending, as he claimed, the ancient constitution against the novel and pernicious doctrine of Tories and 'modern Whigs', drew heavily on Rapin's *History* in his paper-war against Walpole. In Bolingbroke the notion of the 'ancient constitution' is grounded on the Harringtonian maxim – a commonplace in English political thought in the eighteenth century – that power follows property: the ancient constitution was given a firm and stable basis, hitherto lacking, the foundation on which it still stands, when the balance of property shifted in the sixteenth century in favour of the Commons. Elizabeth recognized this, respected the Constitution and was popular. Fifty years later the Constitution was ruined by religious enthusiasm and strife, which would not have happened if it had not been openly attacked by the foreign

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maxims of government of James and Charles, who, ignoring the constitution, attempted to rule by faction, thus creating the political division which rendered the religious ones fatal.

Hume, in his *History* as elsewhere, is a precise thinker, but a notoriously careless writer. His remarks have always to be carefully and cautiously interpreted. One could string together a large number of quotations from the *History* and the *Essays* which would read like an orthodox Whig interpretation. Thus he is to be found on several occasions saying that Charles I did not sufficiently respect the ancient laws and constitution. (In later editions he seems to have made a point of substituting words like 'liberty' or 'parliamentary privileges' for 'constitution'.) Remarks like this, taken by themselves, naturally suggest that he is subscribing to the 'ancient constitution' interpretation of the Whigs. In his 'Character' of James I he says:

While he imagined that he was only maintaining his own authority, he may perhaps be suspected in a few of his actions, and still more of his pretensions, to have somewhat encroached on the liberties of his people,

though he added elsewhere, in a later edition, that James had laid no plan for extending his power. Hume's *History* has been described so often as the work of a Tory, 'the great monarchical historian' (Sir James Mackintosh), an advocate of arbitrary power conjuring up the spirit of absolutism, etc., that it may come as a shock to see just how scathing his condemnation of Charles I's government can be, even in the later editions of the *History*, when, having worked backwards to the Tudor and earlier periods, he thought he could find more precedents and better excuses for Charles's view of the constitution. Actually, as a political theorist, Hume had no special regard for monarchy as such; ideally the best form of government, he thought, was the republican. (And see the scathing and unfair comment, in the Appendix to James I's reign, on the failure of English sovereigns to encourage 'anything that has the appearance

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of science'.) Repeatedly, he questions the legality of Charles's actions, denounces his 'open and flagrant violations of public liberty' between his second and third parliaments, says that as early as 1626 Charles, if he had possessed a standing army, would have at once taken off the mask, and governed without any regard to the ancient laws and constitution; but as it was, he had to proceed cautiously, and 'cover his enterprises under the pretence of ancient precedents, though it must be confessed, the veil could not possibly be thinner and more transparent' (toned down in later versions). 'In the most despotic governments such expedients' as Charles used 'would be regarded as irregular and unequal.' 'Speculative despotism' lent assistance to 'practical'; the nation was treated like 'a conquered province', only a few 'prostituted courtiers or bigoted ecclesiastics' supported this 'unjust and illegal invasion' of the rights and liberties of the nation; moderate men in 1627 (and that means Hume himself, looking back) could not think that the provocation which the king had received, though great, sufficient to justify all these violent measures – the Commons had as yet in no way invaded his authority. Again Hume comments on the Commons' furious prosecution of Manwaring in 1628:

. . . there is nothing which tends more to excuse, if not justify, the extreme rigour of the commons towards Charles, than his open encouragement and avowal of such general principles as were altogether incompatible with a limited government.

After the death of Buckingham, Charles's measures become less rash and hasty, 'though the general tenor of his administration still wants somewhat of being entirely legal', and even if appearances were sufficiently strong in favour of the king to apologize for his following such maxims, yet 'public liberty must be so precarious under this exorbitant prerogative as to render an opposition not only excusable but laudable in the people.' Charles 'never sufficiently respected the Constitution'. 'Too lightly moved by the appearance of necessity, the king had even assumed powers incompatible with the principles of limited government, and had ren-

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dered it impossible for his most zealous partisans entirely to justify his conduct ...' (*anno 1640*). Hampden is praised for his resistance to ship-money: he acquired by his spirit and courage popularity throughout the nation – the people, roused from their lethargy, 'saw plainly the chains which were prepared for them' – and 'has merited great renown with posterity, for the bold stand which he made in defence of the laws and constitution of his country'. The 'merit' of the work of the members of the Long Parliament, in its first phase of operations, so much outweighs their mistakes, setting aside Strafford's attainder, as to 'entitle them to praise from all lovers of liberty', and it must be remembered, Hume adds, that 'revolutions of government cannot be effected by the mere force of argument and reasoning'.

On the other hand, if there was in some sense a 'constitution', so that the Stuarts could be seen to be acting illegally and overstepping its bounds; if the English government had never been regarded as wholly monarchical and always as a limited monarchy; the constitutional and legal situation at the beginning of the seventeenth century was far more ambiguous and uncertain for Hume than for the orthodox Whig interpretation. Precisely when and why Hume came to extend his 'sceptical' Whiggism to the historiography of the dominant party and the 'Establishment' is not clear. By 1753, at any rate, Rapin, from being the most judicious of historians, had become 'totally despicable'. By then Hume had come to see things in a new light, and a radical revision of the 'Establishment' account of the events of the preceding century had become necessary; a new *History* was needed now for other than purely literary reasons. The whole question of the rights and wrongs of the conflict had become much more complex and subtle, providing the intellectual excitement and sense of exploring new ground that launched Hume into the writing of a full-scale history of the seventeenth century.

Hume came to believe that since the English constitution, 'like all others', had always been in a state of continual fluctuation, the powers and privileges of king and commons

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were not accurately defined at the beginning of the seventeenth century, though the king's authority was in general taken to be pretty extensive, and there were even many people ('a great many') who thought that the government of England was 'monarchy, simple and unmixed'. And if the 'constitution' was taken to mean not just what could be found in the statutes but what was currently accepted as constitutional usage confirmed by habit and custom, then it was the Stuart kings who were ruling according to the 'ancient constitution', and defending it against ideas of liberty that were new and only beginning to be widely held and propagated. (The fact that they were *new* and *beginning* to be held is emphasized by italics in later editions.) Interpreted thus, one has not a single ancient constitution, but a series of them, as Hume pointed out in a footnote in Appendix III, which follows the reign of Queen Elizabeth in the Tudor volumes. In 1603 the 'ancient constitution' was the constitution which James inherited from his predecessors, 'that which prevailed before the establishment of our present plan of liberty'. And when Hume came to write the history of the Tudors, he notoriously exaggerated their authority in order to buttress the thesis he had put forward in his history of the Stuarts. (Bolingbroke had insisted that Elizabeth's popularity rested on her respect for the 'ancient constitution' in the Whig sense, but it was not 'un-Whig' to emphasize the 'despotism' of her government; many good Whigs in the eighteenth century – Hurd, for example – did so.) No doubt Hume was wrong or vague about many points of English constitutional history, but he had reached something like the position of modern historians when he argued that, strictly speaking, there was no definite legal 'ancient constitution' for the Stuarts to destroy, but only a number of precedents on either side. As 'moderate' men in 1621 saw it: 'the turbulent government' of England 'afforded a variety of precedents which might be pleaded on both sides. In such delicate questions the people must be divided ...'

If Hume undermined the Whig interpretation in terms of an ancient constitution successively renewed (the Whigs

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objected for instance to Hume's description of the Petition of Right producing 'such a change in the government as was almost equivalent to a revolution'), he could claim that his was a more genuinely establishment history: Whig history brought up to date in more than one sense. His interpretation had, in fact, in some essential respects been anticipated by those 'establishment' Whigs who, writing in defence of Walpole against Bolingbroke and the opposition propagandists in the 1730s, had insisted that true liberty was modern not ancient. There is evidence that these men saw themselves as modernizing aspects of Whiggism which they regarded as old-fashioned. Thus they rejected the myth of the ancient constitution as put forward by the opposition, and wrote as though it were generally agreed among scholars and *literati* to be thoroughly bad and outmoded history. Lord Hervey, in *Ancient and Modern Liberty Stated and Compared* (1734), argued that before 1660, at the very earliest, 'liberty' for the great majority of Englishmen meant the liberty to be oppressed by a variety of tyrants, regal, aristocratic and ecclesiastical. It was sheer ignorance to think of the 'Liberty of Old England' in any other way, and liberty in any real sense dates from the Revolution of 1688. As he developed his theme, Hervey in effect deployed the gist of the thesis (or a great part of it) which caused such an outcry when elaborated by Hume twenty years later: until 1689

the bounds of Liberty and Prerogative were so indistinctly marked out and so indeterminately known, that the names of *Liberty* and *Prerogative* were made use of by both *Prince* and *People* just as opportunity favoured the arbitrary views of the one or the licentious disposition of the other. Nobody knew the just degrees of either . . . encroachments made by the people on the prerogative was called maintaining their liberties, every point they gained on the crown . . . was only called reviving former rights and asserting ancient privileges . . .

That 'equally unhappy and undeserving race of Stuarts' inherited from Elizabeth a government in which the people

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enjoyed not the least shadow of liberty, so that Queen Elizabeth was the cause of most of the misfortunes that befell them and their people. Similar arguments can be found in the government newspapers – the *London Journal*, the *Free Briton*, the *Hyp Doctor*, the *Daily Gazetteer* – in which able writers campaigned for a decade and more to expose, among other weaknesses, the amateurish crudities of Bolingbroke's notions of English history, and, as they claimed, thereby to vindicate the Revolution; but they never carried their arguments to their logical conclusion of a reasoned apologia for the first two Stuart kings: *viz.* how could they be accused of subverting a free constitution which did not exist? They had no need to do what might have appeared too Jacobite; one of their 'lines' was that Jacobitism was not, as Bolingbroke argued, dead. Hume completed the job, (and incidentally was accused of Jacobitism), though how much he knew of these writers there is no evidence to show. He could claim that his was an establishment history in so far as it judged the conflict between king and commons in the light of a political philosophy specially designed for a post-revolutionary régime, according to which moral scruples against obeying the established government of the day can only be justified in cases of 'egregious tyranny'. If this was applied to the seventeenth century, resistance to the Stuarts could only be justified retrospectively, because in the reigns of both James I and Charles I the country was flourishing. In a description of the so-called Eleven Years Tyranny which echoes Clarendon's, Hume wrote that

the grievances under which the English laboured, when considered in themselves, without regard to the constitution, scarcely deserve the name: nor were they either burdensome on the people's revenues, or any way shocking to the natural humanity of mankind. . . . Peace too, industry, commerce, opulence; nay, even justice and lenity of administration, all these were fully enjoyed by the people; and every other blessing of government except liberty, or rather the present exercise of liberty and its proper security.

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As has been seen, it is 'justice', not 'liberty', that is the object for which government is established, and the rule of the first two Stuarts was not the 'egregious tyranny' of a Nero, which justifies resistance.

Hume's *History* was an establishment history also because it was designed to hasten that 'coalition of parties' so much desired by all moderate men; by which Hume meant not, as some commentators think, the abolition of party distinctions as such, because that was impracticable in a 'mixed' government, but the abolition of the 'dangerous' distinction of Whig and Tory: parties divided on fundamental issues concerning the form of government itself or the succession to the crown. In the essay on *The Coalition of Parties* of 1758, Hume welcomed the signs that this division of parties was now ending, and spent the rest of the essay pointing out, in effect, how his history of the Stuarts was designed to further the good cause. Both sides in the seventeenth-century conflict, he showed, stood for an essential principle of good government; there were good arguments on both sides, or rather, because Hume is looking back, both parties now can make out a strong case 'to justify the conduct of their predecessors during that great crisis'; but at the time the royalist case was sounder and safer. For the Whigs to deny this is not only bad history, but bad politics: it simply helps to harden the resistance of those 'malcontents' who still refuse to accept the present regime, allows them an easy dialectical triumph, and disguises the fact that if the *ancestors* of the malcontents were in the right then, *they* are in the wrong now:

... the very principle which made the strength of their party and from which it derived its chief authority has now deserted them and gone over to their antagonists. The plan of liberty is settled; its happy effects are proved by experience;

resistance in fact cannot be justified. But then, if Jacobite malcontents cannot be justified now, by the same token anti-Stuart malcontents were not justified then: an establishment historiography demands as much in the name of

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consistency. As Hume wrote in Appendix III of the *History*:

In the particular exertions of power the question ought never to be forgotten, *what is best?* But in the general distribution of power among the several members of a constitution, there can seldom be admitted any other question than *What is established?* . . . If any other rule than established practice be allowed, factions and dissensions must multiply without end: and though many constitutions, and none more than the British, have been improved even by violent innovation, the praise bestowed on those patriots to whom the nation has been indebted for its privileges ought to be given with some reserve, and surely without the least rancour against those who adhered to the ancient constitution.

To praise them without reserve would be to set the seal of unqualified approval on the most violent innovation. And in order to appreciate the degree of innovation involved, one has to realize that in Hume's opinion the patriots who stood for liberty in the parliaments of James I and Charles I were putting forward a plan of liberty which was something hitherto untried and unheard of in any government, ancient or modern. It was wholly new, and could not therefore be a more risky experiment; all the more so as the plan of liberty involved a 'rigid' rule of law without discretionary powers in the government which Hume regarded as quite unique and not without danger even in the settled and regular government of the eighteenth-century, and which a hundred years earlier would have been well nigh fatal.

The 'generous patriots', 'men of the most uncommon capacity and largest views', who exploited the king's financial and military weakness in order to change the established government into a regular system of liberty, because they saw themselves faced with a choice between that and a regular system of absolute monarchy, which latter was 'to abandon entirely the privileges of the people', have been justified in the event, and have had their reward in the praises of posterity. They stood for the 'noble principles of liberty', the perfection of civil society, and in the first of his

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staged debates (set in 1621) the 'wise and moderate in the nation', meaning Hume himself looking back, after weighing the pros and cons, come down on their side. This does not mean that they were justified *at the time*, in so far as they were not simply acting on the defensive. A history worthy of the present régime must do justice not only to them, but to those who stood for the basic principle of authority, without which any liberty is impossible. As Hume wrote towards the end of the Stuart volumes, in their final version, after his account of the Revolution of 1688, the 'prevailing faction' (i.e. the Whigs)

forgetting that a regard to liberty, though a laudable passion, ought commonly to be subordinate to a reverence for established government, has celebrated only the partisans of the former, who pursued as their object the perfection of civil society, and has extolled them at the expense of their antagonists who maintained those maxims that are essential to its very existence. But extremes of all kinds are to be avoided . . .

This is the fundamental political principle behind Hume's defence of the first two Stuarts. It is related to another aspect of his thought in which he is closer to us than to the optimistic Whigs and Liberals of the nineteenth-century: he did not believe in 'Progress'; he did not think that barbarism was a primitive stage in the progress of society, but an ever-recurrent possibility; he was intensely aware of the precarious nature of civilization; he saw clearly what Keynes described his generation as having failed to see: that 'civilization was a thin and precarious crust, erected by the personality and the will of a very few, and only maintained by rules and conventions, skilfully put across and guilefully preserved.'<sup>3</sup> For Hume civilization was precisely this; there was nothing to guarantee its continued existence, as there had been nothing inevitable about its progress. Always beneath the surface was a boiling lava of passions, liable to

3. J. M. Keynes on 'My Early Beliefs', quoted very aptly by Geoffrey Marshall in 'David Hume and Political Scepticism', *Philosophical Quarterly*, Vol. IV, 1954.

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erupt unaccountably at any time in violent outbursts of fanatical 'enthusiasm'.

Constitutional history, he wrote, in a general survey at the end of Richard III's reign, with which he in effect concluded his historical labours, is instructive, not only because it shows that the more primitive the constitution, the less worthy it is of imitation, and thereby reveals the absurdity of those who 'from a pretended respect to antiquity appeal at every turn to an original plan of the constitution', but also because it instructs men in 'the great mixture of accident which commonly concurs with a small ingredient of wisdom and foresight, in erecting the complicated fabric of the most perfect government'. In the seventeenth century, the leaders of the Commons, the 'political Puritans' as Hume (following Rapin) calls them, supplied the 'small ingredient of wisdom and foresight', but their plan of liberty would not have succeeded if it had not been for the fanaticism of the 'religious Puritans', so that we owe our present constitution and liberty to their bigotry and frenzy also. And this drives home the point that an establishment history must do justice to liberty and authority equally, because political liberty, at any rate, can never be taken for granted. This follows from a fact of psychology that Hume makes use of in his account of the origin of government: that the mass of men are moved by what touches their immediate interests, and political liberty, in itself, is not an immediate interest for the majority. There is a tendency to overemphasize Hume's quasi-Hobbesian stress on the need for authority. But he ends his very last essay (*Origin of Government*, 1774), published twenty years after the first volume of the *History* and two years before his death, at a stage in his life when many have seen him as thoroughly conservative and 'reactionary', by saying that in the contests that often take place between authority and liberty, authority – because it is essential to the very existence of civil society – 'may' challenge the preference,

unless perhaps one may say (and it may be said with some reason) that a circumstance, which is essential to the existence

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of civil society, must always support itself and needs be guarded with less jealousy, than one which contributes only to its perfection, which the indolence of men is so apt to neglect or their ignorance to overlook.

As has been seen, during Charles I's personal rule, the people lacked nothing except political liberty, and 'Charles dreaded no opposition from the people, who are not commonly much affected with consequences.' It was trouble in Scotland that broke the spell.

The best and most searching contemporary critics of Hume's history of the Stuarts, like Daniel MacQueen (*Letters on Mr Hume's History of Great Britain*, 1756) and Joseph Towers (*Observations on Mr Hume's History of England*, 1778) did not denounce Hume for being one-sided, but for being inconsistent; they were baffled by his bi-focal vision and attempt to do justice to both sides at the same time. They quote passages seemingly in favour of liberty and against arbitrary rule, but find these counterbalanced by many more of a contrary nature. There is some inconsistency, especially in the 1754 volume, that is due to historical ignorance and the fact that Hume had changed his opinions, but apart from this Hume is not inconsistent when one realizes that he has two points of view: what has been justified by success was not justified at the time. It is the same sceptical Whiggism which must have baffled anyone who tried to understand a political philosophy with which a professed Whig found it so difficult to justify the Revolution of 1688 at the time, since James II was no 'egregious' tyrant and religion is neither here nor there in Hume's theory of political obligation. It is hardly surprising that Hume's Whiggism was suspect.

But Hume could claim – not that it did him any good – that his interpretation was a better establishment interpretation than any other because it alone did proper honour to the Revolution. Whig ancestor-worship was shameful and backward-looking in a progressive modern state. 'To decry with such violence, as is affected by some, the whole line of Stuart', he wrote, at the conclusion of the reign of James II,

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to maintain that their administration was one continued encroachment on the *incontestable* rights of the people; is not giving due honour to that great event, which . . . made a new settlement of the whole constitution.

The Revolution was a 'great event' precisely because it was *not* just a restoration of ancient privileges. But this was not the sort of 'honour' that Whigs and Englishmen particularly cherished; they did not like to be told that the Revolution was truly revolutionary. In point of fact, of course, Hume praised the 'political Puritans' for the wrong reason. A modern historian would say that he failed to see how thoroughly conservative, backward-looking and unconstructive their political thinking was, and Hume is not saying that their work looked to the future in spite of everything they thought and did. He makes it clear enough that they were aiming consciously at a new and regular plan of liberty, even if they did not know precisely what this implied.

### 5. THE PROGRESS OF LIBERTY

That the Plan of Liberty envisaged by the leaders of the Commons was *new* is the mainspring of Hume's revised interpretation of English constitutional history. And that the plan of liberty was new, and must have been, was confirmed by the idea of the progress of society from rudeness to refinement – one of the leading principles of the philosophical history and social science of the thinkers of the Scottish Enlightenment, and a concept which does not imply, and is quite distinct from a 'belief in progress'.

There has been disagreement among scholars as to the nature of Hume's *History*: is it really a political history or can it be described as a history of civilization? Mossner defended it from the charge of being narrowly political, but was in turn criticized for doing so.<sup>4</sup> J. B. Stewart, in the *Moral and Political Philosophy of David Hume* (1963), the

4. Mossner: 'An Apology for David Hume, Historian' in *Proceedings of the Modern Languages Association*, 1941, reviewed by W. Davidson in *Philological Quarterly*, 1942.

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only full-length treatment of its subject in English, describes the *History* as 'primarily a tract for the times'. 'The History is a political history, not a history of civilization in England.' But it is both; it is a history of civilization (in the sense defined already) and a political history at the same time, and the two aspects of the *History* fuse – the history of civilization bares its teeth in the arena of politics – in the first volume Hume published. To argue that what was aimed at at the beginning of the seventeenth-century was a *new* plan of liberty was to break through the Whig defences on the crucial sector of the whole front. This was the political significance of Hume's beginning his *History* in 1603.

If liberty, properly understood, means law and order, then the history of liberty is the history of the progress of society. It traces the transformation of the 'liberty' or rather 'licentiousness', the savage independence of the German invaders of the Roman Empire, into the rule of law which guarantees personal liberty and security in the 'civilized monarchies' of modern Europe. The political scientist knows that there is no true liberty without law; the history of liberty thus becomes the history of the conditions making for the rule of law. And there can be no question of England retaining and the nations of the continent losing their ancient 'liberties': Hume's references to the freedom-loving Germans are merely rhetorical in the light of his political science.

In the progress of civilization the crucial factor is the growth of commerce and industry, and the rise of 'that middling rank of men, who are the best and firmest basis of public liberty', as Hume described them in his essay on *Refinement in the Arts, or Luxury* (as it was originally called). 'They covet equal laws, which may secure their property and preserve them from monarchical as well as aristocratical tyranny.' The political scientist, tracing the progress of law and liberty, is thus obliged to take account of the economic and social factors without which this development is unintelligible. The essay on 'refinement' is an abridged version of this aspect of the *History*. It is Hume's contribution to the great eighteenth-century debate on the

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pros and cons of 'luxury', and one of his crucial arguments is that economic progress, 'refinement' or 'luxury', is favourable to liberty, 'has a natural tendency to preserve, if not produce, a free government'. A predominantly agricultural society is divided into two classes: landowners, and their vassals or tenants, who are in a servile condition, without wealth or knowledge. But

where luxury nourishes commerce and industry, the peasants by proper cultivation of the land become rich and independent; while the tradesmen and merchants acquire a share of that property, and draw attention and consideration to that middling rank of men.

As Adam Smith said in *The Wealth of Nations*, (Book III, Chapter 4), Hume was, so far as he knew, the first writer to have noticed that the most important but least observed of the effects of commerce and manufacture has been the gradual introduction of order and good government, and with them the liberty and security of individuals, who had before lived almost in a continual state of war with their neighbours and servile dependency on their superiors. This is the ground theme of Hume's *History* – a European theme, as has been noticed, on which the English wrote their own peculiar variation in the seventeenth century. One should add that it is a theme of modern European history exclusively, because there are remarks in the *Essays* which add up to the thesis that true liberty was unknown in classical antiquity because it was not properly restrained by law, and there was nothing corresponding to our 'middling rank of men'. The Greeks were very fond of liberty, he said, but did not understand it very well.

'All the world acknowledges', said Hume in the essay on 'refinement', that the House of Commons owes its power and influence to the growth of commerce. He could point out that his new, 'sceptical', Whig and establishment *History* was only an elaboration of this commonplace. But whereas according to Bolingbroke the shift of the balance of property and power in favour of the commons which occurred

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in the sixteenth century provided a firm social and economic foundation, lacking in the medieval period, for an original, 'ancient' constitution; in Hume it paved the way, among other things, for the emergence of an entirely new one. After his account of James I's first brush with his Parliament over Goodwin's case, in 1604, Hume tells how by the beginning of the seventeenth-century, an economic, social and intellectual revolution had set the scene for great political changes. 'About this period the minds of men throughout Europe, especially in England, seem to have undergone a general, but insensible revolution.' The revival of letters, no longer confined to scholars, began to spread 'among men of the world'. And so on.

The theme is taken up again in 1610. With the shift of the balance of property 'the situation of affairs and the dispositions of men, became susceptible of a more regular plan of liberty'. And in the Appendix to the reign of James I, Hume describes how the progress of commerce and 'the arts' (including what we would call technology) had helped to dissipate the wealth of the great nobility, and during James's reign, to ruin 'the small proprietors of land' also. The result was an increase in the power and authority of the 'gentry or that rank which composed the house of commons'. These men, residing on their estates, as James I, contrary to the maxims of absolute or would-be absolute rulers, preferred them to do, thereby husbanding their resources and acquiring local influence by their hospitality, 'would not be led by the court: they could not be driven: and thus the system of the English government received a total and sudden alteration in the course of less than forty years'. This is the extent of Hume's economic and social interpretation of the Civil War in terms of a rising gentry – he takes it no further.

Nowadays interest and controversy have shifted from the legal rights and wrongs of the conflict to its social and economic aspects. Perhaps the most widely known controversy in any field of history since 1945 has been the famous one over the rise of the gentry. Hume, as has been seen, mentions this as a general cause of the civil war, but his

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*History* is mainly concerned with the foreground of politics and political and constitutional debate. This was what Hume thought was politically divisive, and the *History* was part of a campaign against divisions which were not in the interests of the established régime. The 'economic interpretation' was not controversial. Such as it was: an interpretation of English history in terms of the Harringtonian maxim that power follows property (which Hume did not accept *tout court*), it was a generally accepted commonplace, though it is not to be found in Rapin.

On the whole, though Hume cannot be accused of ignoring social and economic factors, there is truth in the criticism that he paints these subjects with a rather crude and unoriginal brush, at least if one confines oneself to the years covered by this volume of the *History*. At the beginning of his account of the Civil War he has a rather brief introductory section on how the nation divided, but apart from a reference, taken from Clarendon, to 'families enriched by commerce' who joined the Parliamentary side because they hoped thereby to acquire the rank and consideration denied them by the ancient gentry, he does not dwell on the social and economic aspect of the war. Indeed his remark a few pages further on seems almost deliberately intended to smudge it:

... each county, each town, each family almost was divided within itself ... the furious zeal for liberty and presbyterian discipline ... now at last excited an equal ardour for monarchy and episcopacy; when the intention of abolishing these ancient modes of government was openly avowed by the parliament.

Unlike the Jacobite historian, Carte, for example, he has no sociology of the House of Lords. The 'nobility' act as a homogeneous unit – the 'nobility and more considerable gentry enlisted themselves in defence of the monarch' – whereas Carte was at pains to point out that in fact only a quarter of the members of the Upper House did so; the 'buckler of the Crown' had been debased and weakened, because by the end of James I's reign it was made up largely of self-interested, 'new', moneyed men and royal favourites.

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Hume's strength does not lie in this kind of analysis. Social 'contagion', for example, of which Hume is so fond as a principle of historical explanation and which was an original and significant idea in eighteenth-century social theory, can in historical inquiry and practice act as a kind of pseudo-sociological stopper. But some would say that modern historians have allowed themselves to become obsessed by this sort of inquiry. They might ask whether the reaction against 'the Puritan Revolution' and Gardiner has not perhaps gone too far. They might feel that if it is true that Hume has a number of different explanations of the Civil War, which he has not really integrated in a single and consistent thesis, this is perhaps a virtue.

### 6. THE QUESTION OF IMPARTIALITY

There is the vexed question of Hume's impartiality, or lack of it. Here again, the idea of the progress of society can provide a deeper understanding.

One reason usually given for the badness of English historical writing – a universal complaint in the first half of the eighteenth-century – was that a form of government which necessarily gave rise to factions made it impossible for Englishmen to write their own history without bias and distortion. As Montesquieu says at the end of Book XIX, Chapter 27, of *De L'Esprit des lois*, his second survey of the English scene: whereas in absolute monarchies, historians *trahissent la vérité* because they cannot speak out, in free states they do so à cause de leur liberté même, because they are necessarily enslaved to party prejudice. James Hampton in his *Reflections on Ancient and Modern History* (1746) said that modern history was distorted by faction, as ancient history had been by patriotism. Gibbon, contemplating possible subjects for a history in his Journal in 1762, said that in English history of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries 'every writer is expected to hang out a badge of party and is devoted to destruction by the opposite faction'.

Hume certainly thought that he had met this challenge

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and overcome what was so generally regarded as an insuperable obstacle. He never expressed any desire to claim the advantages of writing as a foreigner, which in a very real sense he was, perhaps because Rapin had been criticized for not possessing an inside knowledge of English government and law, but claimed to be writing as a philosopher above party. He was genuinely shocked and dismayed when so many refused to accept this claim at its face value, especially since he was so fiercely proud of his independence as an author and also because an impartial account of the seventeenth-century conflict was not for Hume merely an academic matter: historical impartiality was itself a political weapon in Hume's hands. For whereas in France nearly every critic, *philosophe* and anti-*philosophe*, hailed the *History* as a work of genuine impartiality, (for the reception of Hume's *History* in France see D. L. Bongie: *David Hume, Prophet of the Counter Revolution*, Oxford, 1965), in England with a few exceptions, including Bentham (but not his lieutenant, James Mill), the *History* became the target for a sustained fire from at least two generations of every variety of Whig and radical. Schoolboys were warned of its insidious poison; antidotes were called for, and like Mrs Macaulay's *History*, appeared; Hume's *Stuarts*, wrote Horace Walpole in 1796, are ingenious party-pamphlets; Hallam's *Constitutional History* was a refutation among other things, of Hume's 'Tory prejudices', though Brodie's two-volume *History of the British Empire from the Accession of Charles I to the Restoration* (1822) is the longest and most sustained onslaught; Jeffrey in his review of Brodie discussed the reasons for Hume's 'Tory partialities'; Macaulay regarded Hume as an advocate pure and simple, and his indictment has been described as perhaps the most severe criticism ever passed by one historian on another (J. B. Black), and as Black points out, even J. H. Burton, Hume's biographer, accepts the case against Hume as proven and feels obliged to put in a plea for mitigation of sentence: Hume allowed his sympathies for the Stuarts to overbear his integrity as a philosopher. Critics with no political axe to grind have used

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Hume as an example of the nemesis that awaits the historian whose belief in his own impartiality and detachment is too confident. For example, W. Hunt in the *Cambridge History of English Literature*: ‘... in spite of his belief in his own impartiality, Hume was justly accused of Tory prejudice’. Giarrizzo in his very acute and detailed study of Hume as a historian comes to a sophisticated version of the same sort of conclusion.

Hume himself said that his *History of the Stuarts* was Tory as to ‘persons’, Whig as to ‘things’, or words to that effect. ‘Whig as to things’, of course, begs a lot of questions, some of which have been considered already. ‘Tory as to persons’ must refer, so far as the first Stuart volume is concerned, mainly to Charles I and his Puritan opponents, especially the ‘religious’ Puritans. His ‘character’ of James I is not particularly favourable: the nation flourished in his reign, but James is given no credit for this. The portrait of Charles, though by no means spotless, is on the whole favourable; for example Hume rejects the common criticism that he could not be trusted. (In later editions he has a long note on the question of Charles’ alleged insincerity.) But it is not really so very much more favourable a portrait than that given by Guthrie in Volume III (1751) of his *General History of England*, a work eclipsed by Hume, but competent and not without interest, and Guthrie’s Whiggism, so far as I know, was not impugned. As for the ‘religious Puritans’, Hume’s account of them is notoriously hostile: it was the infusion of their ‘enthusiasm’ that corrupted all the good on the popular side and made civil war inevitable. (This is the reason why after 1641 Hume is quite openly on the royalist side; but also the balance had by then begun to swing too much towards republicanism, and an establishment history in a mixed monarchy could not follow it.) But what has been pointed out already must not be forgotten: that according to Hume, eighteenth-century Englishmen owed their constitution and their freedom largely to the bigotry and zeal of the sectarians.

Hume’s account of the ‘religious Puritans’ has often been

criticized for lacking any trace of sympathetic understanding, which is obvious enough; but perhaps it is easier for us to sympathize with Hume's unsympathetic condemnation of their sanctimonious canting hypocrisy than with Gardiner's admiration of their 'masculine energy', which he contrasted with the 'negative' piety of Ferrar, of Little Gidding, and which seems to have made up, in his opinion, for their narrow-minded egotism and intolerance. 'Without [their] moral earnestness ... life tends to become a stagnant pool, breeding all manner of foulness and corruption.' But those who have just escaped death in the rapids tend to prefer the pool, however 'stagnant', as those becalmed apparently indefinitely in the pool long for the exhilaration of the rapids. If at times Hume makes the Puritans appear contemptible figures of fun with their ignorance, 'rustic' manners, and zeal for ecclesiastical and doctrinal trivialities, this must not be ascribed to snobbery, the superior attitude of a cultured eighteenth-century gentleman; it was a recognized technique, recommended by Shaftesbury (the third Earl), who had argued that the most effective way to counter dangerous fanaticism and intolerance was to make fun of it. It is a sign that Hume took them seriously, not the reverse. It is not sympathetic historical understanding, because Hume did not regard the excesses of these dangerous visionaries, as he saw them, as a phenomenon safely confined to the past; accordingly he had no time for any redeeming features they might have possessed as individuals. Hume, of course, had heard the 'drum ecclesiastic' beating against himself and his opinions on more than one occasion: it was a not uncommon sound in Edinburgh. He would, no doubt, have defended his treatment of the 'religious Puritans' by saying what Voltaire said of him: that he was handling poison with the clinical detachment of the chemist; he would have referred his critics to the study of religious psychology in his *Natural History of Religion* composed shortly before he started work on the *History*. If one reads this essay alongside the *History* one can see how in Hume's eyes it was impossible, psychologically, for the Puritans to have been sincere in their beliefs.

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Hume has been accused so often of failing to understand the manifestations of 'religious' feeling and experience, that it is perhaps time to say that in a sense that we ought to be able to appreciate, he understood these things only too well, though not with the uncanny depth of insight displayed in that extraordinary anti-antinomian tract for our times, Hogg's *Confessions of a Justified Sinner*. (See, for example, the account of Chancellor Loudon's public 'confession' in 1648.)

The area in which Hume sought to deploy his impartiality was in fact a rather narrowly legal one: the rights and wrongs of the constitutional issue, where impartiality was a question of avoiding a party 'system' and steering between two extremes, as Hume said he had done in his examination of the rival political philosophies, contract and passive obedience. And the debate on the constitution is separate from the question of the goodness or badness of the Stuart administration, from James I's notorious extravagance, for instance, or the futile, disastrous, and nationally degrading foreign policy of Charles I and Buckingham. Nor does Hume consider, at any point in the story, the fears and anxieties of the leaders of the Commons, or make any attempt to see things through their eyes. This is irrelevant to the question as to whether resistance in general was or was not justified. In other words, Hume does not consider the possibility that there was an 'ancient constitution' in some moral, non-legal sense; that in a monarchy not wholly absolute it was the duty of the monarch to cultivate harmony with his people, to take them into his confidence, to lead them, not to pursue policies totally against their wishes and what they considered the national interest, etc., and that there was an ancient constitution in so far as the 'despotic' Queen Elizabeth, for example, had done this. Hume makes the most of the failure of Charles I's very first parliament, which the King was so eager to meet, to grant him adequate supplies, but he does not say, among much else that he leaves out of his account, how Charles failed to take the House of Commons into his confidence and explain what the money was for. This sort

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of thing the Whigs naturally regarded as special pleading by omission.

Rapin, not very sure where the truth of the legal position lay between the rival theories of the constitution held by Whig and Tory historians, and admitting that the limits of prerogative and privilege were difficult to define, had argued that in the final analysis all the controversial issues – for example, the origin of the House of Commons, the composition of the Witan (did it include commons?) the nature of the Norman Conquest (was it a conquest?) and so on – could be by-passed, because there had always been a constitution in the sense of some sort of partnership between King and People, and the best and most successful kings had always thought so and acted accordingly, and had never lacked support, financial and other, from their subjects, even when, as in the case of Queen Elizabeth, they were thought to be stretching the prerogative too much in their favour. But the Whig historians mostly preferred to have a definite constitution as well as a moral partnership, and those who came after Hume and felt obliged to take up his challenge – Hallam and Brodie, for example – did so on his own narrow legal ground, thus putting back the clock of historical understanding, until in Gardiner the Whig interpretation emerges in a subtler form, after ordeal by Hume, so to speak.

Gardiner, dropping the idea of a definite constitution for the Stuarts to ‘subvert’, goes much further than Hume in insisting (against Hallam) that technically Charles I was usually in the right, ‘on the narrow technical view’,<sup>5</sup> and the leaders of the Commons were not interested in liberty as we understand it. Everything was on Charles’s side – ‘except the people of England.’<sup>6</sup> It is impossible to deny, Gardiner says, that the position now (1621) claimed for the Commons was in some respects new; but the ‘spirit’ of the constitution was on their side. Behind the despotism of the Tudors and violence of the Middle Ages (which Hume had emphasized),

5. S. R. Gardiner *History of England*, Vol. VI (1884) p. 75.

6. Vol. VIII p. 199.

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a 'deeper principle had been at work, calling on rulers to guide, not force, the national will'. Precedents might be quoted for almost any iniquity on either side, but the great precedent of all, from which all worthy precedents received their value, 'the tradition of a healthy national life handed down from father to son from the remotest days, was guarded in the heart of the English nation by defences against which Charles would dash himself in vain' (VI, 120). Not in statute or precedent, not even in the Great Charter itself, but in the imperishable vitality of the nation, lay the fundamental laws of England (VIII, 85),

that mass of custom and opinion varying in detail from age to age but animated in every age by the same spirit, which for brevity's sake, is called the English Constitution. To the spirit of it the Tudors had, even in their most arbitrary moods, sedulously conformed ... (VI, 315).

Charles had no wish to erect a despotism, and if he had confidence in his own judgement, it was not without justification; yet he failed, because he was morally, intellectually and politically isolated in the midst of his generation (VIII, 299). Thus Gardiner turned Hume's flank. Charles I's actions were unconstitutional and 'revolutionary', because

the root of the old constitution was the responsibility of the Crown to the nation ... that the King was established by God to think and act in opposition to the thoughts and acts which the nation deliberately chose to think best was a new thing in England, and even when the King was right and the nation wrong, a change for the worse. (VI, 314-5).

Hume was not, as Macaulay and others thought, a cunning advocate of Stuart absolutism and opponent of liberty; it was the very need for impartiality as a lesson of moderation in contemporary politics that, perhaps more than anything else, jeopardized that impartiality, pinning Hume down to the narrower controversial issues of the contemporary debate.

But what has been said so far does not do full justice to Hume's idea of impartiality. Of course he was wrong if he

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thought that to try and sit in judgement in God-like detachment, praising and blaming both sides equally, was sufficient, in itself, to guarantee impartiality and objectivity.<sup>7</sup> He wrote to James Oswald in 1753 that there was so much reason to blame and praise King and Parliament alternately that he was afraid 'the mixture of both in my composition being so equal may be regarded as an affectation, and not the result of judgement and evidence'. (The word 'mixture' is usually a symptom of the weak, 'mechanical' side of Hume's thought.) In a letter of 1760 he took the anger of both parties against him as 'a good sign' of his genuine impartiality.<sup>8</sup> Ranke, who was a greater historian than Hume, did not rely on his own honesty of purpose, soundness of judgement and expertise: impartiality could only be guaranteed by some objective criterion – in Ranke's case, the judging of events from the point of view of an international system of great powers in equilibrium.

But in fact there are in Hume's *History* two 'scientific' principles designed to guarantee objectivity and impartiality, which unite to produce an account of the conflict in the seventeenth century which goes beyond good and evil, or the rights and wrongs of the protagonists.

There is, first, the lesson of moderation which Hume had applied originally in his essay *Whether Politics may be reduced to a Science* (1742) in order to cool the party passions generated by the hostility to Walpole: *viz.*, that it is jejune to blame statesmen for actions which are in fact the necessary result of the situation in which they find themselves. As he wrote in the *History*, in defence of Charles I: ' "Tis the situation which decides entirely of the fortunes and characters of men.' 'Nothing', he wrote there also,

7. cf. a passing remark in the *History* (anno 1639): 'This narrowness of mind, if we would be impartial, we must either blame or excuse equally on both sides.'

8. cf. James Hampton: 'We may conclude, that if ever an English writer should arise, who has the courage equally to displease the zealots of both parties, such a one will bid fairest for that character of truth, which constitutes the soul of history.' (*Reflections*, 29).

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will tend more to bate the acrimony of party disputes than to show men that those events which they impute to their adversaries as the deepest crimes, were the natural, if not the necessary, result of the situation in which the nation was placed during any period.

As he added later, at the end of the reign of James II:

The inconveniences suffered by the people [under James I and Charles I] proceeded in a great measure from the unavoidable situation of affairs; and scarcely anything could have prevented those events, but such vigour of genius in the sovereign, attended with such good fortune, as might have enabled him entirely to overpower the liberties of the people.

The first two Stuarts found themselves in an exceptionally difficult position, at the end of that interlude which had been so favourable to monarchy, between the decline of the feudal magnates and the rise of the Commons. The Commons were growing in wealth and influence, the Crown did not have the resources (nor did anyone realize the need) to control them by that 'influence' which is now seen to be a necessity in a mixed government like the British. James and Charles naturally held fast to their prerogative powers, which they were obliged to exercise to the full and make dubious claims for, because otherwise they would not have been able to function as kings; they had no standing army. It was this aspect of 'philosophical' history that C. J. Fox objected to: it was the duty of historians, he insisted, to keep wicked kings in the pillory as a perpetual warning, not to explain away their wickedness.

Montesquieu, in his essay *De la Politique* (which was not published in the eighteenth century), used Charles I's predicament to illustrate the power of impersonal historical forces – the *âme universelle* of a nation – against which statesmen strive in vain; the tendencies of the age were such that whatever Charles did would have been fatal to him. There is something of this behind Hume's account of the irrepressible conflict, which makes use also of the idea of the progress of society: Hume's second objective guarantee

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of historical impartiality. The situation in which King and Commons found themselves was new; it demanded a new plan of liberty; but the plan in the minds of the leaders of the Commons, being new, was not yet systematically thought out; it was 'too new and recent to be as yet founded on systematical principles and opinions' (*anno 1610*).

In the perspective provided by the idea of the progress of society, the conflict of King and Commons takes on an entirely new look, and becomes a case of ignorant armies clashing by night, but as Bentham said of the outcry against Hume's *History*, proof that men are ignorant rather than wicked is not generally appreciated. Hume saw the struggle as a regrettable but inevitable result of political inexperience and ignorance – social and economic ignorance especially – on both sides. But whereas James I's ignorance of the true situation was fortunate for the cause of liberty, that of the Commons was not.

With the progress of society came the need for more regular government than the old 'Gothic' constitutions could provide. There was bound to be a transition to something better suited to the changed conditions. On the continent this proceeded smoothly – except when religion produced opposition – owing to the irresistible might of the standing armies which the kings possessed, and also because they knew precisely what they wanted, and this did not appear to involve any significant change. By extending their already considerable authority they insensibly imposed 'the yoke on their unguarded subjects'. James saw this happening, without realizing that it was only their military power which made it possible. He did not realize that the 'opinion of the people', on which his authority alone rested, was changing, nor did he realize that the authority of the Tudor kings which he inherited was the result of certain peculiar historical and social conditions. He was so convinced of his right that he made no provision, 'either of force or politics', to support it. Neither he nor his son realized – no one realized – how powerful the Commons had become. 'Nothing less than fatal experience could engage the English princes

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to pay a due regard to the inclinations of that formidable assembly.' And in any case, the art of 'managing' parliaments and elections, so necessary to the proper functioning of the English limited monarchy, was still unknown.

As for the Commons, they had, as has been seen, no experience of the sort of limited monarchy they were aiming at, and Hume gives examples of the way in which they misinterpreted the signs and symptoms. For example, the episode of the 'Undertakers', who in the elections to the 1614 Parliament had used their interest to secure a majority for the Court: '... so ignorant were the commons that they knew not this incident to be the first infallible symptom of any regular or established liberty'. In 1621 only 'wise and moderate men' (i.e. Hume, as has been seen) regarded 'the very rise of parties as a happy prognostic of the establishment of liberty', realizing that parties are a necessary product of a mixed government. But it was the inexperience of the Commons of the financial aspects of limited monarchy in modern conditions that was crucial and fatal. Because at this time the burden of government lay so lightly on the people, they failed to understand the king's need for money, and the smallest demand, however requisite, appeared unreasonable and exorbitant. In this important respect Hume does portray the Commons as conservative and backward-looking. The King was at their mercy, but instead of using their financial power to bargain with him, they continued in their customary parsimonious policy. They might have bribed James I 'to depart peacefully from the more dangerous articles of his prerogative'. The King's natural reaction to the effects of their economic illiteracy made the more extreme measures of the Puritans more plausible, and a vicious spiral was set up, Charles I being driven to methods which would be regarded as irregular in the most absolute government. (The situation was repeated after the Restoration, but Charles II had far less excuse than Charles I, because by then everyone had a much more precise and definite idea of the just limits of prerogative.)

It is possible to piece together Hume's story in such a way

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as to show that it has no villain, because the ignorance and inexperience on both sides was the necessary result of the situation in which the parties found themselves. As the 'moderate' men said in 1621, 'a civil war must ensue; a civil war where no party or both parties would justly bear the blame'. If there is a villain, it is the constitution itself, unsettled and irregular.

### 7

No one is going to read a *History* written over two hundred years ago to get a summary of the results of the latest research. But that, however original and important it may be, does not in itself constitute history. In any case, putting historians as such and their obsessions and needs on one side, and appealing now to all citizens of the 'republic of letters' and *aficionados* of *le bon David* in particular, can one ever hear enough of that voice, the quintessence of adult sanity and intelligence, in the shrill clamour and 'all-engrossing torment' of our age of militant immaturity?

DUNCAN FORBES

## BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

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THERE is only one full-scale study of Hume as a historian: G. Giarrizzo, *David Hume, politico e storico* (Turin, 1962). I have repeated in this Introduction some of the points originally made in my review of Giarrizzo's book in the *Historical Journal* (1963), which I hope some time to present in an expanded and more detailed form. Mossner has contributed to a better understanding of Hume's *History*; J. B. Black has a chapter in *The Art of History*; Meinecke has one in *Die Entstehung des Historismus*. In the standard histories of historiography, e.g. that of Fueter, and in general studies of eighteenth-century thought, Hume is considered as a typical historian of the Enlightenment. This can be rather misleading.

Facsimile title page of the first edition of  
*The History of Great Britain*  
by David Hume

T H E  
H I S T O R Y  
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V O L . I.

C O N T A I N I N G

*The Reigns of JAMES I. AND CHARLES I.*

By D A V I D   H U M M E ,   Esq;

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THE  
HISTORY  
OF  
GREAT BRITAIN  
JAMES I

CHAP. I

*Introduction – Death and character of Queen Elizabeth – James's first transactions – State of Europe – Rosni's negotiations – Raleigh's conspiracy – Character of the puritans – Hampton-court conference – A parliament – Peace with Spain*

THE crown of England was never transferred from father to son with greater tranquillity, than it passed from the family of Tudor to that of Stuart. During the whole reign of Elizabeth, the eyes of men had been employed in search of her successor; and when old age made the prospect of her death more immediate, there appeared none but the King of Scotland, who could advance any just claim or pretension to the throne. He was the great-grandson of Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII and, upon the failure of all the male-line, his hereditary right remained unquestionable. If the religion of Mary Queen of Scots, and the other prejudices contracted against her, had formed any considerable obstacle to her succession; these objections, which ought always to be overlooked, except in very extraordinary emergencies, had no place with regard to her son. Men also considered, that, tho' the title, derived from blood, had been frequently violated since the Norman conquest, these

licences had proceeded more from force or intrigue, than from any deliberate maxims of government. The lineal heir had still in the end prevailed; and both his exclusion and restoration had been commonly attended with such convulsions, as were sufficient to warn all prudent men not lightly to give way to such irregularities. If the will of Henry VIII, authorised by act of parliament, had tacitely excluded the Scottish line; the tyranny and caprices of that monarch had rendered his memory so odious, that a settlement of this nature, unsupported by any just reason, had no authority with the people. Queen Elizabeth too, with her dying breath, had recognized the undoubted title of her kinsman James; and the whole nation seemed to dispose themselves with joy and pleasure for his reception. Tho' born and educated amidst a foreign and a hostile people, men hoped, from his character of moderation and wisdom, that he would embrace the maxims of an English monarch; and the prudent foresaw greater advantages, resulting from an union with Scotland, than disadvantages from submitting to a prince of that nation. The alacrity, with which the English looked towards the successor, had appeared so evident to Elizabeth, that it affected her with the deepest melancholy; and that wise Princess, whose penetration and experience had given her the greatest insight into human affairs, had not yet sufficiently weighed the ingratitude of courtiers, and levity of the people.

She expired on March 24. in the year 1603; after a long and a happy, because a prudent, reign, of more than forty four years. Never woman possessed such glory and renown. Who may be accounted the greatest of men, has been long and still is disputed; but who merits the pre-eminence among womankind, will never be doubtful, while the name of Elizabeth is preserved. Almost every virtue, which can finish the character of a sovereign, entered into her composition; and even her severity and frugality, where she inclined towards the extreme, suited so peculiarly her circumstances and situation, that the influence of these qualities seemed equally beneficial with that of her more shining

virtues. Victory abroad, and tranquillity at home, had ever attended her; and she left the nation in such flourishing circumstances, that her successor possessed every advantage, except that of comparison with her illustrious name, when he mounted the throne of England.

The King's journey from Edinburgh to London immediately afforded to the inquisitive some circumstances of comparison, which even the natural partiality in favor of their new sovereign, could not interpret to his advantage. As he passed along, all ranks of men flocked about him, from every quarter; allured by interest or curiosity. Great were the rejoicings, and loud and hearty the acclamations which resounded from all sides; and every one could remember how the affability and popularity of their Queen displayed themselves, amidst such concourse and exultation of her subjects. But James, tho' sociable and familiar with his friends and courtiers, hated the bustle of a mixt multitude; and tho' far from disliking flattery, yet was he still fonder of tranquillity and ease. He therefore issued a proclamation, forbidding this great resort of people; under pretext of the scarcity of provisions, and other inconveniences, which would necessarily attend it.

He was not, however, insensible to the great overflow of affection, which appeared in his new subjects; and being himself of an affectionate temper, he seems to have been in haste to make them some return of kindness and good offices. To this motive, probably, we are to ascribe that great profusion of titles, which was observed in the beginning of his reign; when in six weeks time, after his entrance into the kingdom, he is computed to have bestowed knighthood on no less than 237 persons. If Queen Elizabeth's frugality of honors, as well as of money, had been formerly repined at, it began now to be highly valued and esteemed: And every one was sensible, that the King, by his lavish and premature conferring of favors, had failed of obliging the persons, on whom he bestowed them. Titles of all kinds became so common, that they were no longer marks of distinction; and being distributed, without choice or delibera-

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tion, to persons, unknown to the Prince, were regarded more as the proofs of his weak facility and good-nature, than of any determined friendship or esteem.

A pasquinade was affixed to St Paul's, in which an art was promised to be taught, very necessary to assist frail memories, in retaining the names of the new Nobility.

We may presume, that the English would have thrown less blame on the King's facility in bestowing favors, had these been confined entirely to their own nation, and had not been shared out, in too unequal proportions, to his old subjects. James, who, thro' his whole reign, was more guided by temper and inclination than by the rules of political prudence, had carried along with him great numbers of his Scotch courtiers; whose impatience and importunity were apt, in many particulars, to impose on the easy nature of their master, and extort favors, of which, it is natural to imagine, his English subjects would very loudly complain. The Duke of Lenox, the Earl of Mar, the Lord Hume, Lord Kinloss, Sir George Hume, Secretary Elphinstone, were immediately added to the English privy council. Sir George Hume, whom he created Earl of Dunbar, was his declared favorite as long as that Nobleman lived; and was the wisest and most virtuous, tho' the least powerful of all those whom the King ever honored with that distinction. Hay, sometime after, was created Viscount Doncaster, and then Earl of Carlisle, and got an immense fortune from the crown; all which he spent in a splendid and courtly manner. Ramsay obtained the title of Earl of Holderness; and many others, being raised, on a sudden, to the highest elevation, increased, by their insolence, that envy, which naturally attended them, as enemies and strangers.

It must, however, be owned, in justice to James, that he left almost all the chief offices in the hands of Elizabeth's ministers, and trusted the conduct of political concerns, both foreign and domestic, to his English subjects. Among these, Secretary Cecil, created successively Lord Essindon, Viscount Cranborne, and Earl of Salisbury, was always re-

garded as his prime minister and chief counsellor. Tho' the capacity and penetration of this minister were sufficiently known, his favor with the King created great surprize on the first accession of that monarch. Cecil was son of the famous Burleigh, whose merits towards his sovereign and his country were great, but whose name was naturally odious to James; as the declared enemy of his mother, and the chief cause of her tragical death, that great stain in the bright annals of Elizabeth. He himself, as well as his father, had stood at the head of the court-faction, which opposed the greatness of the Earl of Essex, and which, assisted by the imprudence or rather frenzy of that favorite, at last brought him to the scaffold. The people, by whom the Earl was infinitely beloved, resented the conduct of his enemies; but James still more, who had maintained a close correspondence with Essex, and regarded him as a zealous partizan for the succession in the house of Stuart. Sir Walter Raleigh, Lord Grey, Lord Cobham, Cecil's associates, felt immediately the effects of these prejudices of their master, and were dismissed from all their employments: But Cecil, who possessed all the art and cunning of a courtier, as well as many of the talents of a great statesman, had found the means of making his peace with James; and, unknown both to Elizabeth and all the other ministers, had entered into a secret commerce with the successor, during the latter years of the Queen's administration.

The capacity of James and his ministers in negotiation was immediately put to trial, on the appearance of ambassadors from almost all the princes and states of Europe, in order to congratulate the King on his accession to the throne, and to form with him new treaties and alliances. Beside ministers from Venice, Denmark, the Palatine; Henry Frederic of Nassau, assisted by Barneveldt the Pensionary of Holland, represented the states of the united provinces. Aremberg was sent by the Archduke Albert; and Taxis was expected in a little time from Spain. But he who excited most the attention of the public, both on account of his own merit and that of his master, was the Marquis of

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Rosni, afterwards Duke of Sully, prime minister and favorite of Henry IV of France.

When the dominions of the house of Austria were devolved on Philip II all Europe was struck with terror; lest the power of that family, which had been raised by fortune, should now be carried to an immeasurable height, by the wisdom and conduct of this monarch. But never were apprehensions found in the event to be more groundless. Slow without prudence, ambitious without enterprize, false without deceiving any body, and refined without any true judgment; such was the character of Philip, and such the character, which, during his life-time and after his death, he impressed on the Spanish councils. Revolted or depopulated provinces, discontented or indolent inhabitants, were the spectacles, which those dominions, lying in every climate of the globe, presented to Philip III a weak prince, and to the Duke of Lerma, a minister, weak and odious. But tho' military discipline, which still remained, was what alone gave some appearance of life and vigor to that languishing body; yet such was the terror, produced by former power and ambition, that the reduction of the house of Austria was the object of men's vows, thro'out all the states of christendom. It was not perceived, that the French empire, now united in domestic peace, and governed by the most heroic and most amiable prince, that adorns modern story, was become, of itself, a sufficient counterpoise to the Spanish greatness. Perhaps, that prince himself did not perceive it, when he proposed, by his minister, a league with James, in conjunction with Venice, the united provinces, and the northern crowns; in order to attack the Austrian dominions on every side, and depress the exorbitant power of that ambitious family. But the genius of the English monarch was not equal to such vast enterprizes. Peace was his favorite passion; and it was his peculiar felicity, that the conjectures of the times rendered the same object, which was agreeable to him, in the highest degree advantageous to his people.

The French ambassador, therefore, was obliged to depart

from these extensive aims, and to concert with James the means of providing for the safety of the united provinces: Nor was this object altogether without its difficulties. The King, before his accession to the throne of England, had entertained very strong scruples with regard to the revolt of the low countries; and being always open and sincere, except when deliberately resolved to dissemble, he had, on many occasions, gone so far as to give to the Dutch the denomination of rebels. But having conversed more fully with his English ministers and courtiers, he found their attachment to that republic so strong, and their opinion of common interest so established, that he was obliged to sacrifice to politics his sense of justice; a quality, which, even when erroneous, is respectable and rare in a monarch. He therefore agreed with Rosni to support secretly the states-general, in concert with the King of France; lest their weakness and despair should oblige them to submit to their old master. The articles of the treaty were few and simple. It was agreed, that the two Kings should allow the Dutch to levy forces both in France and Britain; and should underhand remit to the Dutch the sum of 1,400,000 livres a-year for the pay of these forces: That the whole sum should be advanced by the King of France; but that the third of it should be deducted from a debt due by him to Queen Elizabeth. And if the Spaniard attacked either of the Princes, they agreed to assist each other; Henry with a force of ten thousand, James with that of six thousand men. This treaty, one of the wisest and most equitable concluded by James, during the whole course of his reign, was more the work of the Prince himself, than any of his ministers.

Amidst the great tranquillity, both foreign and domestic, with which the nation was blest, nothing could be more surprising than the discovery of a conspiracy to subvert the government, and fix Arabella Stuart, a near relation of the King, and descended equally from Henry VII on the throne of England. Every thing remains still mysterious in this conspiracy; and history can give us no clue to unravel it. Watson and Clarke, two catholic priests, were accused of the

plot: Lord Grey, a puritan: Lord Cobham, a thoughtless man, of no fixt principle: And Sir Walter Raleigh, suspected to be of that philosophical sect, who were then extremely rare in England, and who have since received the appellation of *freethinkers*. Along with these, Mr Broke, brother to Lord Cobham, Sir Griffin Markham, Mr Copley, Sir Edward Parham. What cement could unite men of such discordant principles in so dangerous a combination; what end they proposed, or what means proportioned to an undertaking of this nature, has never yet been explained, and cannot easily be imagined. As Raleigh, Grey, and Cobham were commonly believed, after the Queen's death, to have opposed proclaiming the King, till conditions should be made with him; they were, upon that, as well as other accounts, extremely obnoxious to the court and ministry; and people were apt, at first, to suspect, that the plot was merely a contrivance of Secretary Cecil, to get rid of his old confederates, now become his most inveterate enemies. But the confession, as well as trial of the criminals put the matter beyond all doubt. And tho' no one could find any marks of a concerted enterprize, it appeared, that men of furious and ambitious spirits, meeting frequently together, and believing all the world discontented like themselves, had entertained very criminal projects, and had even entered, some of them at least, into a correspondence with Aremberg, the Flemish ambassador, in order to give disturbance to the new settlement.

The two priests<sup>1</sup> and Broke<sup>2</sup> were executed: Cobham, Grey, and Markham were pardoned,<sup>3</sup> after they had laid their head upon the block. Raleigh too was reprieved, not pardoned; and he remained in confinement many years afterwards.

It appears from Sully's Memoirs, that Raleigh secretly offered his services to the French ambassador; and we may thence presume, that, meeting with a repulse from that quarter, he had had recourse, for the same unwarrantable purposes, to the Flemish minister. Such a conjecture we are

1. November 29.

2. December 5.

3. December 9.

now enabled to form; but it must be confessed, that, on his trial, there appeared no proof of this transaction, nor indeed any circumstance which could justify his condemnation. He was accused by Cobham alone, in a sudden fit of passion, upon hearing, that Raleigh, when examined, had pointed out some circumstances, by which Cobham's guilt might be known and ascertained. This accusation Cobham afterwards retracted; and soon after, retracted his retractation. Yet, upon the written evidence of this single witness, a man of no honor nor understanding, and so contradictory in his testimony; not confronted with Raleigh; not supported by any concurring circumstance; was that great man, contrary to all law and equity, found guilty by the jury. His name was at that time extremely unpopular in England; and every man was pleased to give sentence against the capital enemy of Essex, the favorite of the people.

Sir Edward Coke, the famous lawyer, then attorney-general, managed the cause for the crown, and threw out on Raleigh such gross abuse, as may be esteemed a great reflection, not only on his own memory, but even, in some degree, on the manners of that age. Traitor, monster, viper, and spider of hell, are the terms, which he employs against one of the most illustrious men of the kingdom, who was under trial for life and fortune, and who defended himself with surprising temper, eloquence, and courage.

The next occupation of the King was entirely according to his heart's content. He was now employed in dictating magisterially to an assembly of divines concerning points of faith and discipline, and in receiving the applauses of these holy men for his superior zeal and learning. The religious disputes betwixt the church and the puritans had induced him to call a conference at Hampton-court, under pretext of finding expedients, which might reconcile both parties.

The first reformers, who made such furious and successful attacks on the Romish SUPERSTITION, and shook it to its lowest foundations, may safely be pronounced to have been universally inflamed with the highest ENTHUSIASM. These

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two species of religion, the superstitious and fanatical, stand in diametrical opposition to each other; and a large portion of the latter must necessarily fall to his share, who is so courageous as to control authority, and so assuming as to obtrude his own innovations upon the world. Hence that rage of dispute, which every where seized the new religionists; that disdain of ecclesiastical subjection; that contempt of ceremonies, and of all the exterior pomp and splendor of worship. And hence too, that inflexible intrepidity, with which they braved dangers, torments, and even death itself; while they preached the doctrine of peace, and carried the tumults of war, thro' every part of Christendom.

However obstinate and uncomplying this species of religion, it necessarily received some alteration, according to the different situation of civil affairs, and the different species of government, which it met with in its progress.

In the electorates of Germany, in Denmark, and in Sweden, where the monarch was early converted, and, by putting himself at the head of the reformers, acquired authority amongst them; as the spirit of enthusiasm was somewhat tempered by a sense of order, episcopal jurisdiction, along with a few decent ceremonies, was preserved in the new establishment.

In Switzerland and Geneva, which were popular governments; in France, Scotland, and the low countries, where the people reformed themselves in opposition to the prince; the genius of fanaticism displayed itself in its full extent, and affected every circumstance of discipline and worship. A perfect equality was established among the ecclesiastics; and their inflamed imagination, unconfined by any forms of liturgy, had full liberty to pour out itself, in wild, unpremeditated addresses to the Divinity.

They were the preachers of Switzerland, France, and the low countries, who carried the reformation into England: But as the government was there monarchical, and the magistrate took the lead in this grand revolution; tho' the speculative doctrines were borrowed from the more fanatical

churches, yet were the discipline and worship naturally mitigated with a more humane spirit of religion.

But after the persecutions of Mary had chased abroad all the most obstinate reformers, who escaped her fury; they had leisure to imbibe a stronger tincture of the enthusiastic genius; and when they returned, upon the accession of Elizabeth, they imported it, in its full force and virulence, into their native country.

That renowned Princess, whose good taste gave her a sense of order and decorum, and whose sound judgment taught her to abhor innovations, endeavored, by a steady severity, to curb this obstinate enthusiasm, which, from the beginning, looked with an evil aspect, both on the church and monarchy. By an act of parliament in 1593, all persons above the age of sixteen, who were absent from church a month, or who, by word or writing, declared their sentiments against the established religion, were to be imprisoned, till they made an open declaration of their conformity. This if they refused during three months, they were to abjure the realm; and if they either refused such abjuration, or staid in England beyong the time limited, they were to suffer as felons, without benefit of clergy. To such extreme rigor was the severity pushed of Elizabeth's administration.

The Queen too had established the high commission court, which preserved an uniformity of worship thro' all the churches, and inflicted severe penalties on all innovators. The powers, with which this court was invested, were mostly discretionary; tho' by law it could exact a fine of twenty pound for every month that any one was absent from the established worship.

But tho' the severities of Elizabeth towards the catholics had much weakened that party, whose genius was averse to the prevailing spirit of the nation; like severities had had so little influence on the puritans, who were encouraged by that spirit, that no less than seven hundred and fifty clergymen of that party signed a petition to the King on his accession; and many more seemed willing to adhere to it. They all hoped, that James, having received his education in

Scotland, and having ever professed a strong attachment to the church established there, would at least abate the rigor of the laws enacted against puritans; if he did not show them more particular grace and encouragement. But the King's disposition had taken strongly a contrary byass. The more he knew the puritanical clergy, the less favor he bore them. He had remarked in their Scotch brethren a violent turn towards republicanism, and a zealous attachment to civil liberty; principles nearly allied to that religious enthusiasm, with which they were actuated. He had found, that being mostly persons of low birth and mean education, the same lofty pretensions, which attended them in their familiar addresses to their Maker, of whom they believed themselves the peculiar favorites, induced them to use the utmost freedoms with their earthly sovereign. In both capacities, of monarch and of theologian, he had experienced the little complaisance, which they were disposed to show him; whilst they controled his commands, disputed his tenets, and to his face, before the whole people, censured his conduct and behavior. If he had submitted to the indignity of courting their favor by flattery and dissimulation, he treasured up the stronger resentment against them, and was determined to make them feel, in their turn, the weight of his authority. Tho' he had often met with resistance and faction and obstinacy in the Scotch nobility, he retained no ill will to that order; or rather showed them favor and kindness in England, beyond what reason and sound policy could well justify: But the ascendant, which the presbyterian clergy had assumed over him, was what his monarchical pride could never thorowly digest.

He dreaded likeways the popularity, which attended this order of men in both kingdoms. As austerity and self-denial are imagined, in most religions, to render us acceptable to a benevolent Being, who created us solely for happiness; James remarked, that the rustic severity of these clergymen and of their whole sect had given them, in the eyes of the multitude, the appearance of sanctity and virtue. Strongly inclined himself to mirth and wine and sports of all kinds, he

aprehended their censure for his manner of life, free and disengaged. And, being thus averse, from temper as well as policy, to the sect of puritans; he was resolved, if possible, to prevent its further growth in England.

But it was the character of James's councils, thro'out his whole reign, that, in their end, they were more wise and equitable, than prudent and political, in the means. Tho' justly sensible, that no part of civil administration required greater care or a nicer judgment than the conduct of religious parties, whose various geniuses, affections and antipathies, have so mighty an influence on public affairs; he had not perceived, that in the same proportion as this practical knowledge of theology is requisite, the speculative refinements in it are mean, and even dangerous in a monarch. By entering zealously into frivolous disputes, James gave them an air of importance and dignity, which they could not otherwise have acquired; and being himself enlisted in the quarrel, he could no longer have recourse to contempt and ridicule, the only proper method of appeasing it. The church of England had not yet abandoned the rigid doctrines of grace and predestination: The puritans had not yet totally separated themselves from the church, nor openly renounced episcopacy. Tho' the spirit of the parties was considerably different, the only apparent subjects of dispute were concerning the cross in baptism, the ring in marriage, the use of the surplice, and the bowing at the name of Jesus. These were the mighty questions, which were solemnly agitated in the conference at Hampton-court betwixt some bishops and dignified clergymen on the one hand, and some leaders of the puritan party on the other; the King and his ministers being present.

The puritans were here so unreasonable as to complain of a partial and unfair management of the dispute; as if the search after truth were in any degree the object of such conferences, and a candid indifference, so rare even among private inquirers, in *philosophical* questions, could ever be expected among princes and prelates, in a *theological* controversy. The King, it must be confessed, from the begin-

ning, showed the strongest propensity to the established church, and frequently inculcated a maxim, which, tho' it has some foundation, is to be received with great limitations, *No BISHOP, NO KING.* The bishops, in their turn, were very liberal of their praises towards the royal disputant; and the Archbishop of Canterbury said, that *undoubtedly his Majesty spoke by the special assistance of God's spirit.* A few alterations in the liturgy were agreed to, and both parties separated with mutual dissatisfaction.

It had frequently been the practice of puritanical clergymen to form together certain assemblies, which they called *prophesyings;* where alternately, as moved by the spirit, they displayed their pious zeal in prayers and exhortations, and raised their own enthusiasm, as well as that of their audience, to the highest pitch, from that social contagion, which has so mighty an influence on holy fervors, and from the mutual emulation, which arose in those trials of religious eloquence. Such dangerous societies had been suppressed by Elizabeth; and the ministers in this conference moved the King for their revival. But James sharply replied. *If you aim at a Scottish presbytery, it agrees as well with monarchy as God and the devil. There Jack and Tom and Will and Dick shall meet and censure me and my council. Therefore I reiterate my former speech. Le Roi s'avifera. Stay, I pray, for one seven years before you demand; and then, if you find me grow pursie and fat, I may perchance hearken unto you. For that government will keep me in breath, and give me work enough.* Such were the political considerations, which determined the King in his choice among religious parties.

The next assembly, in which James displayed his learning and eloquence, was one, that showed some more spirit of liberty than appeared among his bishops and theologians. The parliament was now to assemble; being so long delayed on recount of the plague, which raged in London, and to such a degree, that 30,000 persons are computed to have died of it in a year; tho' the City contained at that time only about 150,000 inhabitants.

The speech, which the King made on opening the parliament, displays fully his character, and proves him to have possessed more knowledge and greater parts than prudence or any just sense of decorum and propriety. Tho' few writings of that age surpass this speech either in style or matter; it wants that majestic brevity and reserve, which becomes a king in his addresses to the great council of the nation. It contains, however, a very remarkable stroke of candor, where he confesses his too great facility in yielding to the sollications of suitors: A fault, which he promises to correct, but which adhered to him, and distressed him, during the whole course of his reign.

The first business, in which the commons were engaged, was of the utmost importance to the preservation of their privileges; and neither temper nor resolution were wanting in their conduct of it.

In former periods of the English government, the house of commons were of so small weight in the balance of the constitution, that little attention had been given, either by the crown, the people, or the house itself, to the choice and continuance of the members. It had been usual, after parliaments were prolonged beyond one session, for the chancellor to exert a discretionary authority, or issuing new writs to supply the place of any members, whom he judged incapable of attending, either on account of their employment, their sickness, or other impediment. This practice gave that minister, and consequently the prince, an unlimited power of garbling at pleasure the representatives of the nation; yet so little jealousy had it created, that the commons, of themselves, without any court-influence or intrigue, and contrary to some former votes of their own, confirmed it in the twenty third of Elizabeth.<sup>4</sup> At that time, tho' some members, whose place had been supplied on account of sickness, having now recovered their health, appeared in the house, and claimed their seats; such was the authority of the chancellor, that merely out of respect to him, his sentence was adhered to, and the new members were continued

4. Journ. January, 17. 1580.

in their places. Here a most dangerous prerogative was conferred on the crown: But to show the genius of that age, or rather the channels, in which power then ran, the crown put very little value on this authority; insomuch, that two days afterwards, the chancellor, of himself, resigned it back to the commons, and gave them power to judge of a particular vacancy in their house. And when the question, concerning the chancellor's new writs, was again brought on the carpet towards the end of session, the commons were so little terrified at the precedent, that, tho' they readmitted some old members, whose seats had been vacated, on account of slight indispositions, yet they confirmed the chancellor's sentence, in instances where the distemper appeared dangerous and incurable.<sup>5</sup> Nor did they proceed any farther, in vindication of their privileges, than to vote, *that during the sitting of parliament, there do not, at any time, any writ go out for the choosing or returning any member, without the warrant of the house.* In Elizabeth's reign, we may remark, and the reigns preceding, sessions of parliament usually continued not above the twelfth part so long as the vacations; and during the latter, the chancellor's power, if he pleased to exert it, was still left, by this vote, as unlimited and unrestrained as ever.

In a subsequent parliament, the absolute authority of the Queen was exerted in a manner still more open; and began for the first time to give alarm to the commons. New writs having been issued by the chancellor, where there was no vacancy, and a controversy arising upon that incident; the Queen sent a message to the house, informing them, that it was impertinent for them to deal in such matters. These questions, she said, belonged only to the chancellor; and she had appointed him to confer with the judges, in order to settled all disputes with regard to elections. The commons had the courage, a few days after, to vote. 'That it was a most perilous precedent, where two knights of a county were duly elected, if any new writ should issue out for a second election, without order of the house itself; that the

5. Journ. March, 18. 1580.

discussing and adjudging of this and such like differences belonged only to the house; and that there should be no message sent to the Lord chancellor, not so much as to inquire what he had done in the matter, because it was conceived to be a matter derogatory to the power and privilege of the house.<sup>6</sup> This is the most considerable, and almost only instance of parliamentary liberty, which occurs, during the reign of that arbitrary Princess.

Outlaws, whether on account of debts or crimes, had been declared by the judges,<sup>7</sup> incapable of a seat in the house, where they must themselves be lawgivers: But this opinion of the judges had been frequently over-ruled. I find, however, in the case of Vaughan,<sup>8</sup> who was questioned for an outlawry, that, having proved all his debts to have been contracted for suretiship, and to have been, most of them, honestly compounded, he was allowed, on account of these favorable circumstances, still to keep his seat: Which plainly supposes, that, otherwise, it would have been vacated, on account of the outlawry.

When James summoned this parliament, he issued a proclamation;<sup>9</sup> where among many general advices, which, like a kind tutor, he bestowed on his people, he strictly charges them not to choose any outlaw for their representative. And he adds; *If any person take upon him the place of knight, citizen, or burgess, not being duly elected, according to the laws and statutes in that behalf provided, and according to the purport, effect, and true meaning of this our proclamation, then every person so offending, to be fined or imprisoned for the same.* A proclamation here was plainly put on the same footing with a law, and that in so sacred a point as the right of elections: Most alarming circumstances, had there not been room to believe, that this measure, being entered into so early in the King's reign, proceeded more from precipitation and ignorance, than from any serious design of invading the privileges of his parliament.

6. Sir Simon D'ewes's journal. p. 397.

7. 39. H. vi.      8. Journ. Feb. 8. 1580.      9. Jan. 11. 1604.

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Sir Francis Goodwin was chosen member for the county of Bucks; and his return, as usual, was made into chancery. The chancellor, pronouncing him an outlaw, vacated his seat, and issued writs for a new election. Sir John Fortiscue was chosen in his place by the county: But the first act of the house was to reverse the chancellor's sentence, and restore Sir Francis to his seat. At the King's instigation, the lords desired a conference on this subject; but were absolutely refused by the commons, as the question regarded entirely their own privileges. They agreed, however, to make a remonstrance to the King by the mouth of their speaker; where they maintained, that, tho' the returns were by form made into chancery, yet the sole right of judging with regard to elections belonged to the house itself, not to the chancellor. James was not satisfied, and ordered a conference betwixt the house and the judges, whose opinion in this case was opposite to that of the commons. This conference, he said, he commanded as an *absolute* king;<sup>10</sup> an epithet, we may imagine, not very grateful to English ears, but one to which they had already been somewhat accus-

10. Sir Charles Cornwallis the King's ambassador at Madrid, when pressed by the Duke of Lerma to enter into a league with Spain, said to that minister; *Tho' his Majesty was an absolute king, and therefore not bound to give an account to any, of his actions; yet that so gracious and regardful a prince he was of the love and contentment of his own subjects, &c I assured myself he would not think it fit to do any thing of so great consequence without acquainting them with his intentions.* Winwood, Vol. 2. p. 222. Sir Walter Raleigh has this passage in the preface to his history of the world. *Philip II, by strong hand and main force, attempted to make himself, not only an absolute monarch over the Netherland, like unto the kings and monarchs of England and France, but Turk-like to tread under his feet all their natural and fundamental laws, privileges and ancient rights.* We may infer from these passages, either that the word *absolute* bore a different sense from what it does at present, or that men's ideas of the English government were then different. This latter inference seems juster. The word being derived from the Latin and French, bore always the same sense as in these two languages. An absolute monarchy in Charles I's answer to the nineteen propositions, is opposed to a limited: and the King of England is acknowledged not to be absolute. So much had matters changed even before the civil war.

tomed from the mouth of Elizabeth. He added, *That all their privileges were derived from his grant, and hoped they would not turn them against him*; a sentiment, which, from her conduct, it is probable, that Princess had also entertained, tho' her prudence and love of popularity had ever restrained her from openly expressing it.

The commons were in some perplexity. Their eyes were now opened, and they saw the consequences of that power, which had been assumed by the chancellor, and to which their predecessors had, in some instances, blindly submitted. *By this course, said a member, the free election of the counties is taken away, and none shall be chosen but such as shall please the king and council. Let us, therefore, with fortitude, understanding, and sincerity, seek to maintain our privilege. This cannot be construed any contempt in us, but merely a maintainance of our common rights, which our ancestors have left us, and which it is just and fit for us to transmit to our posterity.* Another said, *This may be called a quo warranto to seize all our liberties. A chancellor, added a third, by this course may call a parliament, consisting of what persons he pleases. Any suggestion, by any person, may be the cause of sending a new writ. It is come to this plain question, whether the chancery or parliament ought to have authority.*

Notwithstanding this watchful spirit of liberty, which now appeared in the commons, their deference for majesty was so great, that they appointed a committee to confer with the judges before the King and council. There the question of law began to appear in James's eyes, a little more doubtful than he had hitherto imagined it; and in order to bring himself off with some honor, he proposed, that both Goodwin and Fortescue should be set aside, and a writ be issued, by warrant of the house, for a new election. The commons embraced this expedient; but in such a manner, that, while they marked their regard for the King, they secured, for the future, the free possession of their seats, and the right, which they claimed, of judging solely in their own elections and returns.

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A power like this, so essential to the exercise of all their other powers, themselves so essential to public liberty, cannot fairly be deemed an encroachment in the commons; but must be regarded as an inherent privilege, happily rescued from that doubt and ambiguity, which the negligence of some former parliaments had thrown upon it.

At the same time, the commons, in the case of Sir Thomas Shirley, established their power of punishing, as well the persons at whose suit any member was arrested, as the officers, who either arrest or detain him. Their asserting of this privilege admits of the same reflection.

About this period, the minds of men, thro'out all Europe, but especially in England, seem to have undergone a general, but insensible revolution. Tho' letters had been revived in the preceding age, they had been little cultivated beyond the limits of the college; nor had they, till now, begun to spread themselves, in any degree, among men of the world. Arts, both mechanical and liberal, were every day receiving great improvements. Navigation had extended itself over the whole globe. Travelling was secure and agreeable. And the general system of politics, in Europe, was become more enlarged and comprehensive.

In consequence of this universal fermentation, the ideas of men expanded themselves on all sides; and the several constituent parts of the gothic governments, which seem to have lain a-sleep for so many ages, began, everywhere, to operate and encroach on each other. On the continent, where the necessity of discipline had begot mercenary armies, the prince commonly established an unlimited authority, and overpowered, by force or intrigue, the liberties of the people. In England, the love of freedom, which, unless checked, flourishes extremely in all liberal natures, acquired new force, as well as more enlarged views, suitable to that cultivated understanding, which became, every day, more common, among men of birth and education. A familiar acquaintance with the precious remains of antiquity excited in every generous breast a passion for a limited constitution, and engendered an emulation of those manly

virtues, which the Greek and Roman authors, by such animating examples, as well as pathetic expressions, recommend to us. The severe, tho' popular government of Elizabeth had confined this rising spirit within very narrow bounds: But when a new and a foreign family succeeded to the throne, and a prince less dreaded and less beloved; symptoms immediately appeared of a more free and independent genius in the nation.

Happily, this Prince possessed neither sufficient capacity to perceive the alteration, nor sufficient art and vigor to check it in its early advances. Jealous of regal, because conscious of little personal authority, he had established within his own mind a speculative system of absolute government, which few of his subjects, he believed, and none but traitors and rebels, would make any scruple to admit. On whichever side he cast his eyes, every thing concurred to foster his prejudices. When he compared himself with the other hereditary sovereigns of Europe, he imagined that, as he bore the same rank, he was intitled to equal prerogatives; not considering the innovations lately introduced by them, and the military force, with which their authority was supported. In England, that power, almost unlimited, which had been exercised for above a century, especially during the late reign, he ascribed solely to royal birth and title; not to the prudence and spirit of the monarchs, nor to the conjectures of the times. Even the opposition, which he had struggled with in Scotland, encouraged him still farther in his favorite notions; while he there saw, that the same resistance, which opposed regal authority, violated all law and order, and made way either for the ravages of a barbarous nobility, or to the more intolerable insolence of seditious preachers. In his own person, therefore, he thought all legal power to be centered, by an hereditary and a divine right: And this opinion might have proved dangerous, if not fatal, to liberty; had not the very firmness of the persuasion, and its seeming evidence, induced him to trust intirely to his right, without making the smallest provision either of force or politics, in order to support it.

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Such were the opposite dispositions of parliament and prince, at the commencement of the Scottish line; dispositions just beginning to exist and to appear in the parliament, but thorowly established and openly avowed on the part of the prince.

The spirit and judgment of the house of commons appeared, not only in defence of their own privileges, but also in their endeavor, tho', at this time, in vain, to free trade from those shackles, which the high exerted prerogative, and even, in this respect, the ill judged tyranny of Elizabeth had imposed upon it.

James had already, of his own accord, called in the numerous patents for monopolies, which had been granted by his predecessor, and which fettered extremely every species of domestic industry: But the exclusive companies still remained; another species of monopoly, by which almost all foreign trade, except that to France, was brought into the hands of a few rapacious engrossers, and all prospect of future improvement in commerce, for ever sold to a little temporary advantage of the sovereign. These companies, tho' arbitrarily erected, had carried their privileges so far, that the whole commerce of England was centered in London; and it appears, that the customs of that port amounted to 110,000 L. a-year, while those of all the kingdom beside yielded only seventeen thousand. Nay, the whole trade of London was confined to about 200 citizens, who were easily enabled, by conspiring among themselves, to fix whatever price they pleased both to the exports and imports of the nation. The committee, appointed to examine this enormous grievance, the greatest which we read of in English story, insist on it as a fact well known and avowed, however contrary to present received opinion, that shipping and seamen had sensibly decayed during all the preceding reign. And tho' nothing be more common, than complaints of the decay of commerce, even during the most flourishing periods; yet is this a consequence which might naturally result from such arbitrary establishments, at a time when the trade of all the other nations of Europe,

except that of Scotland, enjoyed the utmost liberty and indulgence.

While the commons were thus attempting to give liberty to the trading part of the nation, they also endeavored to free the landed interest from the burthen of wardships, and to remove those remains of the feudal tenures, under which the nation still labored. A just regard was shown to the crown in the whole conduct of this affair; nor was the remedy, sought for, considered as a matter of right, but merely of grace and favor. The profit, which the King reaped both from wards and from respite of homage, was estimated; and it was proposed to compound for these prerogatives by a secure and independent revenue. But after some debates in the house, and some conferences with the lords, the affair was found to contain more difficulties than could easily, at that time, be surmounted; and it was not brought to any conclusion.

The same fate attended an attempt of a like nature, to free the nation from the burthen of purveyance; an old prerogative in the crown, by which the officers of the household were empowered to take, without consent of the owners, provisions for the King's family, and carts and horses for the removal of his baggage, upon paying a certain stated price for them. This prerogative had been much abused by the purveyors; and the commons shewed some intention to offer the King fifty thousand pound a-year for the abolition of it.

Another affair of the utmost consequence was brought before this parliament, where the commons shewed a greater spirit of independence than any true judgment of national interest. The union of the two kingdoms was very zealously, and even impatiently urged by the King. He justly regarded it as the peculiar felicity of his reign, that he had terminated the bloody animosities of these hostile nations, and had reduced the whole island under one empire; enjoying tranquillity within itself, and security from all foreign invasion. He hoped, that, while his subjects of both kingdoms reflected on past disasters, beside regarding

his person as infinitely precious, they would entertain the strongest desire of securing themselves against the return of like calamities, by a thorow union of laws, parliaments and privileges. He considered not, that this very reflection operated, as yet, in a contrary manner, on men's prejudices, and kept alive that mutual hatred betwixt the nations, which had been carried to the highest extremity, and required time to allay it. The more urgent the King appeared in promoting so useful a measure, the more backward was the English parliament in concurring with him; while they ascribed his excessive zeal to that partiality, in favor of his antient subjects, of which, they thought, that, on other occasions, they had reason to complain. Their complaisance for the King, therefore, carried them no farther than to appoint forty four English to meet with thirty one Scotch commissioners, in order to deliberate concerning the terms of an union; but without any power of making advances towards the establishment of it.

The same spirit of independence, and perhaps not better judgment, appeared in the house of commons, when the question of supply was brought before them, by some members, who were attached to the court. In vain was it urged, that, tho' the King received a supply, which had been voted to Elizabeth, and which had not been collected before her death; yet he found it burthened with a debt contracted by the Queen, equal to the full amount of it: That the peace was not yet thorowly concluded with Spain, and that Ireland was still expensive to him: That on his journey from Scotland, amid such an immense concourse of people, and on that of the Queen and royal family, he had expended considerable sums: And that, as the courtiers had looked for greater liberalities from the Prince on his first accession, and had imposed on his generous nature; so the Prince, in his turn, would expect, at the beginning, some mark of duty and attachment from his people, and some consideration of his necessities. No impression was made on the house of commons by these topics; and the majority appeared fully determined to refuse all supply. The burthen

of the government, at that time, lay surprisingly light upon the people: And that very reason, which to us, at this distance, may seem a motive for generosity, was the real cause why the parliament were so remarkably frugal and reserved. They were not, as yet, accustomed to open their purses in so liberal a manner as their successors, in order to supply the wants of their sovereign; and the smallest demand, however requisite, appeared in their eyes unreasonable and exorbitant.

In order to cover a disappointment, which might bear a bad construction both at home and abroad, James sent a message to the house, where he told them, that he desired no supply; and he was very forward in refusing what was never offered him. Soon after, he prorogued the parliament, not without discovering, in his speech, visible marks of dissatisfaction. Even so early in his reign, he saw reason to make public complaints of the restless and encroaching spirit of the puritanical party, and of the malevolence, with which they endeavoured to inspire the commons.

This summer, the peace with Spain was finally concluded, and was signed by the Spanish ministers at London. In the conferences, preparatory to this treaty, the nations were found to have so few claims on each other that, except on account of the support given by England to the low country provinces, the war might appear the effect more of personal animosity betwixt Philip and Elizabeth, than any contrariety of political interests betwixt their subjects. Such articles in the treaty as seem prejudicial to the Dutch commonwealth, were never executed by the King; and as the Spaniards made no complaints on that head, it appeared, that, by mutual agreement, these articles were understood in a different sense from what they seem naturally to bear. The Constable of Castile came into England to ratify the peace; and on the part of England, the Earl of Hartford was sent into the low countries for the same purpose, and the Earl of Nottingham, Lord high admiral, into Spain. The train of the latter was very numerous and splendid; and the Spaniards, it is said, were extremely surprised, when they beheld

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the blooming countenances and graceful appearance of the English, whom their bigotry, inflamed by the priests, had represented as so many monsters and infernal demons.

Tho' England, by means of her naval force, was perfectly secure, during the latter years of the Spanish war; James shewed an extreme impatience to put an end to hostilities; and soon after his accession, before any terms of peace were concerted, or even proposed by Spain, he recalled all the letters of marque<sup>11</sup> which had been granted by Queen Elizabeth. The Archduke Albert had made some advances of a like nature, which invited the King to take this friendly step. But what is remarkable; in James's proclamation for that purpose, he plainly supposes, that, as he had himself, while king of Scotland, always lived in amity with Spain, peace was attached to his person, and that merely by his accession to the crown of England, without any articles of treaty or agreement, he had ended the war betwixt the kingdoms. This ignorance of the law of nations may appear surprising in a Prince, who was thirty six years of age, and who had reigned from his infancy; did we not consider, that a king of Scotland, who lives in close friendship with England, has few transactions to manage with foreign princes, and has little opportunity of acquiring experience. Unhappily for James, his timidity, his prejudices, his indolence, his love of amusement, particularly of hunting, to which he was extremely addicted, ever prevented him from making any progress in the knowledge or practice of foreign politics, and in a little time diminished that regard, which all the neighbouring nations had paid to England, during the reign of his predecessor.

11. 23d of June, 1603.

## CHAP. II

*Gun-powder conspiracy – Character of the catholics –  
A parliament – Truce betwixt Spain and the united  
provinces – A parliament – Death of the French King  
– Arminianism – State of Ireland*

WE come now to relate an event among the most memorable, which history has conveyed to posterity, and containing at once a singular proof both of the strength and weakness of the human mind; its widest departure from morals, and its most steady attachment to religious prejudices. 'Tis the *Gun-powder-treason* of which I speak; a fact as certain as it appears incredible.

The Roman catholics had expected great favor and indulgence on the accession of James, both as he was descended from Mary, who had sacrificed her life to their cause, and as he himself, in his early youth, shewed some partiality towards them; which nothing, they believed, but interest and necessity had since restrained. 'Tis pretended, that he had even entered into positive engagements to tolerate their religion, as soon as he should mount the throne of England; whether their credulity had interpreted in this sense some obliging expressions of the King, or that he had employed such an artifice, in order to render them favorable to his title. Very soon, they discovered their mistake; and were at once surprised and enraged to find James, on all occasions, express his intention of executing strictly the laws enacted against them, and of persevering in all the rigorous measures of Elizabeth. Catesby, a gentleman of good parts and of an antient family, first thought of a most extraordinary method of revenge; and he opened his intention to Piercy, a descendant of the illustrious house of Northumberland. In one of their conversations with regard to the distrest condition of the catholics, Piercy having broke into a sally

of passion, and mentioned the assassinating the King; Catesby took the opportunity of revealing to him a nobler and more extensive plan of treason, which not only included a sure execution of vengeance, but afforded some hopes of restoring the catholic religion in England. In vain, said he, would you put an end to the King's life: He has children, who would succeed both to his crown and to his maxims of government. In vain would you extinguish the whole royal family: The nobility, the gentry, the parliament are all infected with the same heresy, and could raise to the throne another prince and another family, who, beside their hatred to our religion, would be animated with revenge for the tragical death of their predecessors. To serve any good purpose, we must destroy, at one blow, the King, the royal family, the lords, the commons; and bury all our enemies in one common ruin. Happily, they are all assembled on the first day of every session; and afford us the opportunity of glorious and useful vengeance. Great preparations will not be requisite. A few of us, combining, may run a mine below the hall, in which they meet, and choosing the very moment when the King harangues both houses, consign over to destruction these determined foes to all piety and religion. Mean while, we ourselves standing aloof, safe and unsuspected, shall triumph in being the instruments of divine wrath, and shall behold with pleasure those sacrilegious walls, in which were past the edicts for proscribing our church and butchering her children, toss into a thousand fragments; while their impious inhabitants, meditating perhaps still new persecutions against us, pass from flames above to flames below, there for ever to endure the torments due to their offences.

Piercy was charmed with this project of Catesby; and they agreed to communicate the matter to a few more, and among the rest to Thomas Winter whom they sent over to Flanders, in quest of Fawkes, an officer in the Spanish service, with whose zeal and courage they were all thorowly acquainted. When ever they inlisted a new conspirator, in order to bind him to secrecy, along with an oath, they always employed

the sacrament, the most sacred rite of their religion. And 'tis remarkable, that no one of these pious devotees ever entertained the least compunction with regard to the cruel massacre, which they projected, of whatever was great and eminent in the nation. Some of them only were startled by the reflection, that of necessity many catholics must be present; as spectators, as attendants on the King, as having seats in the house of peers: But Tesmond, a jesuit, and Garnet, superior of that order in England, removed these weak scruples, and showed them how the interests of religion required, that the innocent should here be sacrificed along with the guilty.

All this passed in the spring and summer of the year 1604; when the conspirators also hired a house in Piercy's name, adjoining to that in which the parliament was to assemble. Towards the end of that year they began their operations. That they might be less interrupted, and give less suspicion to the neighbourhood, they carried in store of provisions along with them, and never desisted from their labour. Obstinate to the purpose, and confirmed by passion, by principle, and by mutual exhortation, they little valued life in comparison of a disappointment; and having provided arms, along with the instruments of their work, they resolved there to perish in case of a discovery. Objects of pity as well as of horror, barbarous and pious, traitorous and faithful, they fancied themselves favorites of heaven while enemies to mankind, and drowned all sense of crime in their pretensions to superior excellence and merit. Their perseverance advanced the work; and they soon pierced the wall, tho' three yards in thickness; but on approaching the other side, they were somewhat startled with hearing a noise, which they knew not how to account for. Upon inquiry, they found, that it came from the vault below the house of lords; that a magazine of coals had been kept there; and that, as the coals were selling off, the vault would be let to the highest bidder. The opportunity was immediately seized; the place hired by Piercy; thirty six barrels of powder lodged in it; the whole covered up with faggots and billets; the doors of the

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cellar boldly flung open; and every body admitted, as if it contained nothing dangerous.

Confident of success, they now began to look forward, and to plan the remaining part of their project. The King, the Queen, the Prince of Wales were all expected to be present at the opening of the parliament. The Duke, by reason of his tender age, would be absent; and it was resolved, that Piercy should seize him, or assassinate him. The Princess Elizabeth, a child likeways, was kept at Lord Harrington's house in Warwickshire; and Sir Everard Digby, Rookwood, Grant, being let into the conspiracy, engaged to assemble their friends, under pretext of a hunting-match, and seizing that Princess immediately to proclaim her Queen. So transported were they with rage against their adversaries, and charmed with the prospect of revenge, that they forgot all care of their own safety; and trusting to the general confusion, which must result from so unexpected a blow, they foresaw not, that the fury of the people, now unrestrained by any authority, must have turned against them, and would probably have satiated itself, by an universal massacre of the catholics.

The day, so long wished for, now approached, on which the parliament was appointed to assemble. The dreadful secret, tho' communicated to above twenty persons, had been religiously kept, during the space of near a year and a half. No remorse, no pity, no fear of punishment, no hope of reward, had, as yet, induced any one conspirator either to abandon the enterprize, or make a discovery of it. The holy fury had extinguished in their breast every other motive; and it was an indiscretion at last, proceeding chiefly from these very bigotted prejudices and partialities, which saved the nation.

Ten days before the meeting of the parliament, Lord Monteagle, a catholic, son of Lord Morley, received the following letter, which had been delivered to his servant by an unknown hand. *My Lord, Out of the love I bear to some of your friends, I have a care of your preservation. Therefore I would advise you, as you tender your life, to devise*

*some excuse to shift off your attendance at this parliament. For God and man have concurred to punish the wickedness of this time. And think not slightly of this advertisement; but retire yourself into your country, where you may expect the event in safety. For, tho's there be no appearance of any stir, I say, they will receive a terrible blow, this parliament, and yet they shall not see who hurts them. This council is not to be contemned, because it may do you good, and can do you no harm: For the danger is past, as soon as you have burned the letter. And I hope God will give you the grace to make good use of it, to whose holy protection I commend you.*

Monteagle knew not what to make of this letter; and tho' inclined to think it a foolish attempt to frighten and ridicule him, he judged it safest to carry it to Lord Salisbury, secretary of state. Tho' Salisbury too was inclined to give little attention to it, he thought proper to communicate it to the King, who came to town a few days after. To the King, it appeared not so light a matter; and from the serious earnest style of the letter, he conjectured, that it implied something very dangerous and important. A *terrible blow* and yet *the authors concealed*, a danger so *sudden* and yet so *great*, these circumstances seemed all to denote some contrivance by gun-powder; and it was thought advisable to inspect all the vaults below the houses of parliament. This care belonged to the Earl of Suffolk, Lord chamberlain; who purposely delayed the search, till the day before the meeting of the parliament. He remarked those great piles of wood and faggots, which lay in the vault under the upper house; and he cast his eye upon Fawkes, who stood in a dark corner, and passed himself for Piercy's servant. That daring and determined courage, which so much distinguished this conspirator, even among those heroes in villany, was fully painted in his countenance, and was not passed unnoticed by the Lord chamberlain. Such a quantity of fuel too, for the use of one who lived so little in town as Piercy, appeared a little extraordinary; and upon comparing all circumstances, it was resolved, that a more thorow inspection should be made. About midnight, Sir Thomas Knevett, a justice of

peace, was sent with proper attendants; and before the door of the vault, finding Fawkes, who had just finished all his preparations, he immediately seized him, and turning over the faggots, discovered the powder. The matches and every thing proper for setting fire to the train were taken in Fawkes' pocket, who finding his guilt now apparent, and seeing no refuge but in boldness and despair, expressed the utmost regret, that he had lost the opportunity of firing the powder at once, and of sweetening his own death by that of his enemies. Before the council, he displayed the same intrepid firmness, mixt even with scorn and disdain; refusing to discover his accomplices, and showing no concern but for the failure of the enterprize. This obstinacy lasted for two or three days: But being confined to the tower, left to reflect on his guilt and danger, and the rack being just shown to him; his courage, fatigued with so long an effort, and unsupported by hope or society, at last succumbed; and he made a full discovery of all the conspirators.

Catesby, Piercy, and the other criminals, who were in London; tho' they had heard of the alarm taken at the letter sent to Monteagle, tho' they had heard of the Lord chamberlain's search; yet were resolved to persist to the utmost, and never abandoned their hopes of success.<sup>1</sup> But at last, hearing that Fawkes was arrested, they hurried away to Warwickshire; where Sir Everard Digby, making account that success had attended his confederates, was already in arms, in order to seize the Princess Elizabeth. She had escaped into Coventry; and they were obliged to put them-

1. Some historians have imagined, that the King had secret intelligence of the conspiracy, and that the letter to Monteagle was wrote by his direction, in order to obtain the fame of penetration in discovering the plot. But the known facts refute this supposition. That letter, being commonly talked of, might naturally have given an alarm to the conspirators, and made them contrive their escape. The visit of the Lord chamberlain ought to have had the same effect. In short, it appears, that no body was arrested or enquired after, for some days, till Fawkes discovered their names. We may infer, however, from a letter in Winwood's Memorials, vol 2. that Salisbury's sagacity led the King in his conjectures, and that the minister, like an artful courtier, gave his master the praise of the whole discovery.

selves on their defence against the country, who were raised from all quarters, and armed, by the sherriffs. The conspirators, with all their attendants, never exceeded the number of eighty persons; and being surrounded on every side, could no longer entertain hopes, either of escaping or prevailing. Having therefore confessed themselves, and received absolution, they boldly prepared for death, and resolved to sell their lives as dear as possible to the assailants. But even this miserable consolation was denied them. Some of their powder took fire, and disabled them for defence. The people rushed in upon them. Piercy and Catesby were killed with one shot. Digby, Rookwood, Winter, and others, being taken prisoners, were tried, confessed their guilt, and died, as well as Garnet, by the hands of the executioner.

Neither had the desperate fortune of the conspirators urged them to this enterprize, nor had the former profligacy of their lives prepared them for so great a crime. Before that audacious attempt, their conduct seems, in general, to be liable to no reproach. Catesby's character had entitled him to such regard, that Rookwood and Digby were seduced by their implicit trust in his judgment; and they declared, that, from the motive alone of friendship to him, they were ready, on any occasion, to have sacrificed their lives. Digby himself was as highly esteemed and beloved as any man in England; and he had been particularly honoured with the good opinion of Queen Elizabeth. 'Twas bigotted zeal alone, the most absurd of prejudices masqued with reason, the most criminal of passions covered with the appearance of duty, which seduced them into measures, that were fatal to themselves, and had so nearly proved fatal to their country.

The Lords Mordaunt and Sturton, two catholics, were fined, the former 10,000 pound, the latter 4000, by the star-chamber; because their absence from parliament had begot a suspicion of their being made acquainted with the conspiracy. The Earl of Northumberland was fined 30,000 pound, and detained several years prisoner in the tower; because, among other grounds of suspicion, he had admitted Piercy into the number of gentlemen pensioners,

without his taking the requisite oaths. These sentences may be esteemed somewhat arbitrary: But such was the nature of all proceedings in the star-chamber.

The King, in his speech to the parliament, observed, that, tho' religion had engaged the conspirators into so criminal an attempt, yet ought we not to involve all the Roman catholics in the same guilt, or suppose them equally disposed to commit such enormous barbarities. Many holy men, he said, and our ancestors among the rest, had been seduced to concur with that church in her scholastic doctrines; who yet had never admitted her seditious principles, concerning the Pope's power of dethroning kings, or sanctifying assassination. The wrath of heaven is denounced against crimes, but innocent error may obtain its favor; and nothing can be more hateful than the uncharitableness of puritans, who condemn alike to eternal torments, even the most inoffensive proselytes to popery. For his part, he added, that conspiracy, however atrocious, should never alter, in the least, his plan of government: While with one hand he punished guilt; with the other, he would still support and protect innocence. After this speech, he prorogued the parliament, till the 22nd of January.

The moderation, and, I may say, magnanimity, of the King, immediately after so narrow an escape from a most detestable conspiracy, was no way agreeable to his subjects. Their rage against popery, even before this provocation, had risen to a great pitch; and it had perhaps been more prudent in James, by a little dissimulation, to have conformed himself to it. Here it may not be improper, in a few words to give some account of the Roman catholic superstition, its genius and spirit. History addresses itself to a more distant posterity than will ever be reached by any local or temporary theology; and the characters of sects may be studied, when their controversies shall be totally forgotten.

Before the reformation, all men of sense and virtue wished impatiently for some event, which might repress the exorbitant power of the clergy all over Europe, and put an end to the unbounded usurpations and pretensions of the Roman

pontiff: But when the doctrine of Luther was promulgated, they were somewhat alarmed at the sharpness of the remedy; and it was easily foreseen, from the offensive zeal of the reformers, and defensive of the church, that all christendom must be thrown into combustion. In the preceding state of ignorance and tranquillity, into which mankind were lulled, the attachment to superstition, tho' without reserve, was not extreme; and, like the antient pagan idolatry, the popular religion consisted more of exterior practices and observances, than of any principles, which either took possession of the heart, or influenced the conduct. It might have been hoped, that learning and knowledge, as of old in Greece, stealing in gradually, would have opened the eyes of men, and corrected such of the ecclesiastical abuses as were the grossest and most burthensome. It had been observed, that, upon the revival of letters, very generous and enlarged sentiments of religion prevailed thro'out all Italy; and that, during the reign of Leo, the court of Rome itself, in imitation of their illustrious prince, had not been wanting in a just sense of freedom. But when the enraged and fanatical reformers took arms against the papal hierarchy, and threatened to rend from the church at once all her riches and authority; no wonder she was animated with equal zeal and ardor, in defence of such antient and invaluable possessions. At the same time, that she employed the stake and gibbet against her avowed enemies, she extended her jealousy even towards learning and philosophy, whom, in her supine security, she had formerly overlooked, as harmless and inoffensive. Hence, the severe check, which knowledge received in Italy: Hence, its total extinction in Spain: And hence, the slow progress, which it made, in France, Germany, and England. From the admiration of antient literature, from the inquiry after new discoveries, the minds of the studious were every where turned to polemical science; and, in all schools and academies, the furious controversies of theology took place of the calm disquisitions of learning.

Meanwhile, the rage of dispute and the violence of oppo-

sition rivetted men more strongly in all their various delusions, and infected every intercourse of society with their malignant influence. The Roman pontiff, not armed with temporal force, sufficient for his defence, was obliged to point a-new all his spiritual artillery, and to propagate the doctrine of rebellion and even of assassination, in order to subdue or terrify his enemies. Priests, jealous and provoked, timorous and uncontroled, directed all the councils of that sect, and gave rise to such events as seem astonishing amid the mildness and humanity of modern manners. The massacre of Paris, that of Ireland, the murder of the two Henrys of France, the gun-powder conspiracy in England, are memorable, tho' temporary instances of the bigotry of that superstition. And the dreadful tribunal of the inquisition, that utmost instance of human depravity, is a durable monument to instruct us what a pitch iniquity and cruelty may rise to, when covered with the sacred mantle of religion.

Tho' the prospect of sharing the plunder of the church had engaged some princes to embrace the reformation, it may be affirmed, that the Romish system remained still the favorite religion of sovereigns. The blind submission, which is inculcated by all superstition, particularly by that of the catholics; the absolute resignation of all private judgment, reason, and inquiry; these are dispositions very advantageous to civil as well as ecclesiastical authority; and the liberty of the subject is more likely to suffer from such principles than the prerogatives of the chief magistrate. The splendor too and pomp of worship, which that religion carefully supports, are agreeable to the taste of magnificence, that prevails in courts, and form a species of devotion, which, while it flatters the pampered senses, gives little perplexity to the indolent understandings, of the great. That delicious country, where the Roman pontiff resides, was the source of all modern art and refinement, and diffused on its superstition an air of politeness, which distinguishes it from the gross rusticity of the other sects. And tho' policy made it assume, in some of its monastic orders, that austere mien, which is acceptable to the vulgar; all authority still resided in its

prelates and spiritual princes, whose temper, more cultivated and humanized, inclined them to every decent pleasure and indulgence. Like all other species of superstition, it rouses the vain fears of unhappy mortals; but it knows also the secret of allaying these fears, and by exterior rites, ceremonies, and abasements, tho' sometimes at the expence of morals; it reconciles the penitent to his offended deity.

Employing all these various arts, along with a restless enterprize, the catholic religion has acquired the favor of many monarchs, who had received their education from its rival sect; and Sweden, as well as England, has felt the effect of its dangerous insinuations. James's theological learning, confirmed by disputation, had happily fixed his judgment in a different system; yet was his heart a little byassed by the allurements of Rome, and he had been extremely pleased, if the making some advances could have effected an union with that antient mother-church. He strove to abate the acrimony of his own subjects against the religion of their fathers: He became himself the object of their diffidence and aversion. Whatever measures he embraced; in Scotland to introduce prelacy, in England to inforce the authority of the present church, and support its rites and ceremonies; were interpreted as so many steps towards popery, and were represented by the fanatical puritans as symptoms of idolatry and superstition. Ignorant of the consequences, or unwilling to sacrifice to politics his inclination, which he called his conscience, he persevered in the same measures, and gave trust and preferment, almost indifferently, to his catholic and protestant subjects. And finding his person, as well as his title, less obnoxious to the church of Rome, than those of Elizabeth, he gradually abated the rigor of those laws which had been enacted against that church, and which were so acceptable to his bigotted subjects. But the effects of these dispositions on both sides became not very sensible, till towards the conclusion of his reign.

At this time, James seems to have possessed, in some degree, the affections even of his English subjects, and in a

pretty high degree, their esteem and regard. Hitherto their complaints were chiefly levelled against his too great constancy in his early friendships; a quality, which, had it been attended with more oeconomy, the wise would have excused, and the candid would even, perhaps, have applauded. His parts, which were not despicable, and his learning, which was great, being highly extolled by his courtiers and gown-men, and not yet tried in the management of any delicate affairs, for which he was unfit, bred a very high idea of him in the world; nor was it always thro' flattery or insincerity, that he received the title of the second Solomon. A report, which was suddenly spred about this time, of his being assassinated, visibly struck a great consternation into all orders of men. The commons too abated, this session, somewhat of their excessive frugality; and granted him an aid of three subsidies and six fifteenths, which, Sir Francis Bacon said in the house, might amount to about four hundred thousand pound. And for once the King and parliament parted in friendship and good humor. The hatred, which the catholics seemed to bear him, gave him, at this time, an additional value in the eyes of his people.

This aid was payable in four years; and the King's profusion, joined to the necessary charges of the government, had already very much anticipated it, and disposed him to dissipate, in a very little time, among his friends and courtiers, all the remainder. To engage him farther into expence, his brother-in-law, the King of Denmark, payed him a visit this summer; and the whole court was employed in feasting and revelry, in masques and interludes. Great erudition and profound morality, with little taste or pleasantry, prevail in all these entertainments: Mystery, allegory, and allusion reign thro'out. Italy was then the model for wit and ingenuity among the European nations. France herself, who afterwards set so much better patterns of elegance and pleasure, was at that time contented to copy servilely the labored and romantic inventions of her southern neighbor.

The chief affair, which was transacted next session, was the projected union of the two kingdoms. Nothing could

exceed the King's passion and zeal for this noble enterprize, but the parliament's prejudice and reluctance against it. There remain two excellent speeches in favor of the union, that of the King, and that of Sir Francis Bacon. Those, who affect in every thing such an extreme contempt for James, will be surprised to find, that his discourse, both for good reasoning and eloquent composition, approaches very near that of a man, who was undoubtedly, at that time, one of the greatest geniuses of Europe. A few trivial indiscretions and indecorums may be said to characterize the harangue of the monarch, and mark it for his own. And in general, so open and avowed a declaration in favor of a measure, where he had taken no care, by any precaution or intrigue, to ensure success, may safely be pronounced a very great indiscretion. But the art of managing parliaments, by private interest or cabal, being found hitherto of little use or necessity, was not, as yet, become a part of English politics. In the common course of affairs, government could be conducted without their assistance; and when their concurrence became requisite to the measures of the crown, it was, generally speaking, except in times of great faction and discontent, obtained without much difficulty.

The King's influence seems to have rendered the Scotch parliament very cordial in all the steps, which they took towards the union. Tho' the advantages, which Scotland might hope from that measure, were more considerable; yet were the objections too, with regard to that kingdom, more striking and obvious. The benefit, which must have resulted to England, both by accession of strength and security, was not despicable; and as the English were, by far, the greater nation, and possessed the seat of government, the objections, either from honor or jealousy, could not reasonably have any place among them. The parliament indeed seem to have been swayed merely by the vulgar motive of national antipathy. And they persisted so obstinately in their prejudices, that all the efforts for a thorow union and incorporation, ended only in the abolition of the hostile laws, formerly enacted betwixt the kingdoms.

Some precipitant steps, which the King, a little after his first accession, had taken, in order to promote his favorite project, had been here observed to do more injury than service. From his own authority, he had assumed the title of King of Great Britain; and had quartered the arms of Scotland, along with those of England, in all coins, flags, and ensigns. And he had engaged the judges to make a declaration, that all those, who, after the union of the crowns, should be born in either kingdom, were, for that reason alone, naturalized in both. This was a nice question, and, according to the ideas of those times, susceptible of subtle reasoning on both sides. The King was the same: The parliaments were different. To render the people therefore the same, we must suppose, that the sovereign authority resides chiefly in the prince, and that these popular assemblies are rather ordained to assist with money and advice, than induced with any controlling or active powers in the government. *It is evident*, says Bacon in his pleadings on this subject, *that all other commonwealths, monarchies only excepted, do subsist by a law precedent. For where authority is divided amongst many officers, and they not perpetual, but annual or temporary, and not to receive their authority but by election, and certain persons to have voices only in that election, and the like; these are busy and curious frames, which of necessity do presuppose a law precedent, written or unwritten, to guide and direct them: But in monarchies, especially hereditary, that is, when several families or lineages of people do submit themselves to one line, imperial or royal; the submission is more natural and simple; which afterwards, by law subsequent, is perfected and made more formal; but that is grounded upon nature.* It would seem from this reasoning, that the idea of an *hereditary, limited* monarchy, tho' implicitly supposed in many public transactions, had never, as yet, been expressly formed, by any English lawyer or politician.

Except the obstinacy of the parliament with regard to the union, and an attempt on the King's ecclesiastical jurisdiction, most of their other measures, during this session,

were sufficiently respectful and obliging; tho' they still discover a vigilant spirit, and a careful attention towards public good and national liberty. The votes too of the commons show, that that house contained a mixture of puritans, who had acquired great authority among them, and who, along with religious prejudices, were continually suggesting ideas, more suitable to a popular than a monarchical form of government. The natural appetite for rule, made the commons lend a willing ear to every doctrine, which tended to augment their power and influence.

A petition was moved in the house for a more rigorous execution of the laws against popish recusants, and an abatement towards protestant nonconformists. Both these points were equally unacceptable to the King; and he sent orders to the house to proceed no farther in that matter. The house were inclined, at first, to consider these orders as a breach of privilege: But they soon acquiesced, when told, that this measure of the King was supported by many precedents, particularly during the reign of Elizabeth. Had the house been always disposed to make the precedents of that reign the rule of their conduct, they needed never have had any difference with any of their monarchs.

The complaints of Spanish depredations were very loud among the English merchants. The lower house sent a message to the lords, desiring a conference with them, in order to their presenting a joint petition to the King on that subject. The lords took some time to deliberate on this message; because, they said, the matter was *weighty* and *rare*. It probably occurred to them, at first, that the parliament's interposing in affairs of state would appear unusual and extraordinary. And to show, that in this sentiment they were not guided by faction or court-influence; after they had deliberated, they agreed to the conference. When all business was finished, the King prorogued the parliament.

About this time, there was an insurrection of the country people in Northamptonshire, headed by one Reynolds, a

man of low condition. They went about destroying inclosures; but carefully avoided the committing any other outrage. This insurrection was easily suppressed, and, tho' great lenity was used, yet were some of the ringleaders punished. The chief cause of that trivial commotion seems to have been, in itself, far from trivial. 'Twas, at that time and some time before, the common practice in England to disuse tillage, and throw the land into inclosures for the sake of pasture. By this means, the kingdom was depopulated, or at least, prevented from increasing so much in people, as might have been expected from the daily increase of industry and commerce. In this respect, the common rule, that riches beget populousness, admits of some allowance or abatement. In proportion as the common people in England became more opulent, they increased the luxury of their diet, and were not contented, like their fathers, to make bread their chief nourishment. The fields, thrown into pasture, came to require less cultivation, and employed fewer hands. Peasants too, by their increase in riches, were enabled to undertake more extensive projects of husbandry, which rendered the farm-houses much thinner thro'out the country. These large farms it was found easier to manage in pasture than in tillage, which tended still further to depopulate the nation. 'Tis probable, however, that, at this time, the cities gained what was lost by the country.

Next year presents us nothing memorable: But in the spring of the subsequent, after a long negotiation, was concluded, by a truce of twelve years, that war, which, for near half a century, had been carried on with such fury, betwixt Spain and the states of the united provinces. Never contest seemed, at first more unequal: Never contest was finished with more honor to the weaker party. On the side of Spain were ranged numbers, riches, authority, discipline: On the side of the revolted provinces were found the attachment to liberty and the enthusiasm of religion. William, Prince of Orange, by his prudence, gave stability to the fury of the people, and taught them, first behind their walls, then in

the open field, to oppose the unrelenting tyranny of Spain. By firm and redoubled blows, they shook the ill-jointed fabric of that enormous monarchy. Thro' the unknown seas of both the Indies, they sought their formidable foe, and returned with riches, as well as honor, to their native country. The unhappy East, ignorant of other government but despotism, was astonished to see men obey the silent and invisible authority of laws; and regarded, as an inexplicable prodigy, the noble principle of freedom, by which these strangers were animated. Even Europe, which, in Greek and Roman story, had seen the spirit of liberty surmount every human opposition; now, in this singular country, gained from the ocean, beheld with wonder the elements themselves submit to its prevailing power. By her naval enterprizes the republic maintained her armies; and joining peaceful industry to military valor, she was enabled, by her own force, to support herself, and gradually rely less on those neighboring princes, who, from jealousy to Spain, were at first prompted to encourage her revolt. Long had the pride of that monarchy prevailed over her interest, and prevented her from hearkening to any terms of accommodation with her rebellious subjects. But finding all intercourse cut off betwixt her provinces by the maritime force of the states, she at last agreed to treat with them as a free people, and solemnly to renounce all claim and pretension to their sovereignty.

This chief point being once gained, the treaty was easily brought to a conclusion, under the joint mediation and guarantee of France and England. All exterior appearances of honor and regard were payed equally to both crowns: But very different were the sentiments, which the states, as well as all Europe, entertained of the princes, who wore them. Frugality and vigor, the chief circumstances, which procure regard among foreign nations, shone as conspicuously in Henry as they were defective in James. To a contempt of the English monarch, the French seems to have added a considerable degree of jealousy and aversion, which were sentiments altogether without foundation. James was

perfectly just and fair in all transactions with his allies; but it appears from the memoirs of those times, that each side esteemed him partial towards their adversary, and fancied, that he had entered into secret measures against them. So little equity have men in their judgments of their own affairs; and so dangerous is that entire neutrality affected by the King of England!

The little concern, which James took in foreign affairs, renders the domestic occurrences, particularly those of parliament, the most interesting of his reign. A new session was called this spring; the King full of hopes of receiving supply; the commons, of circumscribing his exorbitant prerogative. The Earl of Salisbury, now created treasurer on the death of the Earl of Dorset, laid open the King's necessities, first to the house of lords, then to a committee of the commons. He insisted on the unavoidable expences, in supporting the navy, and in suppressing a late insurrection in Ireland: He mentioned three numerous courts, which the King was obliged to maintain, for himself, for the Queen, and for the Prince of Wales: He observed, that Queen Elizabeth, tho' a single woman, had received very large supplies, in the years preceding her death, which alone were expensive to her: And he asserted, that, during her reign, she had very much dissipated the crown-lands; an expedient, which, tho' it supplied her present necessities, without laying burthens on her people, multiplied extremely the necessities of her successor. From all these causes he thought it no-ways strange, that the King's income should fall short so great a sum of eighty one thousand pound of his stated and regular expence; without mentioning contingencies, which ought always to be esteemed a fourth of the yearly charges. And as the crown was now necessarily burthened with a great and urgent debt, he thence inferred the absolute necessity of an immediate and large supply from the people. To all these reasons, which James likeways urged in a speech addressed to both houses, the commons remained inexorable. But not to shock the King with an absolute refusal, they

granted him one subsidy and one fifteenth; which would scarce amount to a hundred thousand pound. And James received the mortification of discovering, in vain, all his wants, and of begging aid of subjects, who had no reasonable indulgence nor consideration for him.

Among the many causes of disgust and quarrel, which now, daily and unavoidably, multiplied betwixt Prince and parliament, this article of money is to be regarded as none of the least considerable. After the discovery and conquest of the West-Indies, gold and silver became every day more plentiful in England, as well as in the rest of Europe; and the price of all commodities and provisions rose to a pitch beyond what had ever been known, since the declension of the Roman empire. As the revenue of the crown rose not in proportion,<sup>2</sup> the Prince was insensibly reduced to poverty amid the general riches of his subjects, and required additional funds, in order to support the same magnificence and force, which had been maintained by former monarchs. But while money thus flowed into England, we may observe, that, at the same time, and probably from that very cause, art and industry of all kinds received a mighty increase; and elegance in every enjoyment of life became better known, and more cultivated among all ranks of people. The King's servants, both civil and military, his courtiers, his ministers, demanded more ample supplies from the impoverished Prince, and were not contented with the same simplicity of living, which had satisfied their ancestors. The Prince himself began to regard an increase of pomp and splendor as requisite to support the dignity of his character, and to preserve the same superiority above his subjects, which his predecessors had enjoyed. Some equality too, and proportion to the other sovereigns of Europe, it was natural for him to desire; and as they had universally enlarged their revenue and multiplied their taxes, the King of England esteemed it reasonable, that his subjects, who were generally richer

2. Beside the great dissipation of the crown-lands, the fee-farm-rents never increased, and the other lands were let on long leases and at a great undervalue, little or nothing above the old rent.

than theirs, should bear with patience some additional burthens and impositions.

Unhappily for the King, those very riches, along with the increasing knowledge of the age, bred opposite sentiments in his subjects; and engendering a spirit of freedom and independence, disposed them to pay little regard, either to the entreaties or menaces of their sovereign. While the barons possessed their former immense property and extensive jurisdictions, they were apt, on every disgust, to endanger the monarch, and throw the whole government into confusion: But this very confusion often, in its turn, proved favorable to the monarch, and made the nation again submit to him, in order to re-establish justice and tranquillity. After that both the statute of alienations, and the increase of commerce had thrown the ballance of property into the hands of the commons, the situation of affairs and the dispositions of men became susceptible of a more regular plan of liberty; and the laws were not supported singly by the authority of the sovereign. And tho' in that interval, after the decline of the peers, and before the people had yet experienced their force, the princes assumed an exorbitant power, and had almost annihilated the constitution under the weight of their prerogative; so soon as the commons recovered from their lethargy, they seem to have been astonished at the danger, and were resolved to secure liberty by firmer barriers, than their ancestors had hitherto provided for it.

Had James possessed a very rigid frugality, he might have warded off this crisis somewhat longer; and waiting patiently for a favorable opportunity to increase and fix his revenue, might have secured the extensive authority, which was transmitted to him. On the other hand, had the commons been inclined to act with more generosity and kindness towards their Prince, they might probably have turned his necessities to good account and have bribed him to depart peaceably from the most dangerous articles of his prerogative. But he was a foreigner, and ignorant of the arts of popularity; they sowed by religious prejudices, and

tenacious of their money: And, in this situation, it is no wonder, that, during this whole reign, we scarce find an interval of mutual confidence and friendship betwixt prince and parliament.

The King, by his prerogative alone, had, some years before, altered all the customs, and established new impositions on almost every kind of merchandize. The precedents for so dangerous an exercise of power were neither very recent nor very numerous. One in the reign of Mary, another in the beginning of Elizabeth, were the latest that could be found. But, as the impositions of these two Queens had been all along submitted to, and still continued to be levied; they seemed to throw a kind of doubt and ambiguity on this question, which was of so great moment to the constitution. 'Tis observable too, on the one hand, that the kings of England had, in many instances, assumed as their prerogative the sole direction of foreign commerce; and, that commerce being antiently managed altogether by strangers, these were the more readily abandoned to the royal will and authority. And, on the other hand, it is obvious that the duties of tonnage and poundage had usually been levied by authority of parliament, and, tho' regularly continued, had yet been received as a free gift from the people. On this occasion, the commons remonstrated to the King against a measure, which was certainly the most exceptionable of any embraced by him during his whole reign. They observed, *That the reasons of that practice might be extended much farther, even to the utter ruin of the antient liberty of the kingdom, and the subjects' right of property in their lands and goods.* Tho' expressly forbid by the King to touch his prerogative, they passed a bill abolishing these impositions; which was rejected by the house of lords.

In another address to the King, they objected to the practice of borrowing upon privy seals, and desired, that the subjects should not be forced to lend money to his Majesty, nor give a reason for their refusal. Some murmurs likeways were thrown out in the house against the monopoly of the licence of wines. It must be confessed, that forced loans and

monopolies were established on many and recent precedents; tho' diametrically opposite to all the principles of a free government.<sup>3</sup>

The house likeways discovered some discontent against the King's proclamations. James told them, *That tho' he well knew, by the constitution and policy of the kingdom, that proclamations were not of equal force with laws; yet he thought it a duty incumbent on him, and a power inseparably annexed to the crown, to refrain and prevent such mischiefs and inconveniences as he saw growing on the state, against which no certain law was extant, and which might tend to the great detriment of the subject, if there should be no remedy provided till the meeting of a parliament.* And this prerogative, he adds, *our progenitors have, as well in antient as later times, used and enjoyed.* The intervals betwixt sessions, we may observe, were frequently so long as to render it requisite for a prince to interpose by his prerogative; and it was an established maxim among the lawyers, that all the proclamations of a king were abrogated by his death. But what the authority could be, which bound

3. We find the King's answer in Winwood's Memorials. 'To the third and fourth (namely that it might be lawful to arrest the King's servants without leave, and that no man should be inforced to lend money, nor to give a reason why he would not) his Majesty sent us an answer, that because we brought precedents of antiquity to strengthen those demands, he allowed not of any precedents drawn from the time of usurping or decaying princes or people too bold and wanton; that he desired not to govern in that commonwealth, where subjects should be assured of all things and hope for nothing. It was one thing, *submittere principatum legibus*; and another thing, *submittere principatum subditis*. That he would not leave to posterity such a mark of weakness upon his reign, and therefore his conclusion was, *non placet petitio, non placet exemplum*: Yet with this mitigation, that in matters of loans he would refuse no reasonable excuse, nor should my Lord chamberlain deny the arresting of any of his Majesty's servants, if just cause was shown.' Winwood, vol. 3. p. 193. 2d edit. The parliament, however, acknowledged at this time with thankfulness to the King, that he allowed disputes and inquiries about his prerogative, much beyond what had been indulged by any of his predecessors. This very session, he expressly gave them leave to produce all their grievances, without exception.

the subjects, and yet was inferior to the authority of laws, seems inexplicable by any maxims of reason or politics: And in this instance, as in many others, it is easy to see, how unintelligible the English constitution was, before the parliament was able, by continued acquisitions or encroachments, to establish it on fixt principles of liberty.

Upon the settlement of the reformation, that extensive branch of power, which regards ecclesiastical matters, being then without an owner, seemed to belong to the first occupier; and Henry failed not immediately to seize it, and to exert it even to the utmost degree of tyranny. The possession of it was continued with Edward; and recovered by Elizabeth; and that ambitious Princess was so remarkably jealous of this flower of her crown, that she severely reprimanded the parliament, if they ever presumed to intermeddle in these matters, tho' but to appoint a fast or regulate the observance of Sunday; and they were so over-awed by her authority, as to submit, and to ask pardon on these occasions. But James's parliaments were much less obsequious. They ventured to lift up their eyes, and to consider this prerogative. They there saw a very large province of government, possessed by the King alone, without being communicated to the parliament. They were sensible, that this province admitted not of any exact boundary or circumscription. They had felt, that the Roman pontiff, in former ages, under pretext of religion, was gradually making advances to usurp the whole civil power. They dreaded still more dangerous consequences from the pretensions of their own sovereign, who resided among them, and who, in many other respects, possessed such unlimited authority. They therefore esteemed it absolutely requisite to bereave him of this branch of prerogative; and accordingly, in the preceding session, they passed a bill against the establishment of any ecclesiastical canons without consent of parliament. But the house of lords, as is usual, defended the barriers of the throne, and rejected the bill.

In this session, the commons contented themselves with remonstrating against the proceedings of the *high commis-*

sion court. This court had been established by Elizabeth, and consisted partly of lay-members, partly of ecclesiastical; all of them nominated by the crown. Their jurisdiction extended to all ecclesiastical affairs, and their sentences were altogether discretionary, or, what the commons called, arbitrary. The *star-chamber*, which consisted of the judges and privy council, exerted like authority in civil matters. It required no great penetration to see the extreme danger to liberty, arising from discretionary powers in a regal government. But James, as was natural, rejected the application of the commons. He was probably sensible, that, beside the great diminution of his authority, many inconveniences must necessarily result from the abolishing all power of this nature in every magistrate; and that the laws, were they ever so carefully framed and digested, could not possibly provide against all contingencies; much less, where they had not, as yet, attained a sufficient degree of accuracy and refinement.

But the business, which chiefly occupied the commons, during this session, was the abolition of wardships and purveyance; prerogatives, which had been more or less touched on, every session, during the whole reign of James. In this affair, the commons employed the proper means, which might intitle them to success: They offered the King a settled revenue as an equivalent for the powers, which he should part with; and the King was willing to hearken to terms. After much dispute, he offered to give up these prerogatives for 200,000 pound a-year, which they agreed to confer on him: And nothing remained towards closing the bargain, but that the commons should determine the funds, from which this sum should be levied. The session was too far advanced to bring so difficult a matter to a full conclusion; and tho' they met again, towards the end of the year, and resumed the question, they were never able to terminate an affair, which they seemed so intent upon. The journals of that session are lost; and as the historians of that age are very negligent in relating parliamentary affairs, of whose importance they were not sufficiently apprised, we know not exactly the reason of this failure. It only appears,

that the King was extremely dissatisfied with the conduct of the parliament, and soon afterwards dissolved it. This was his first parliament, and it sat near seven years.

In the midst of all these attacks, some more, some less violent, on royal prerogative, the King displayed, as openly as ever, all his exalted notions of monarchy and the authority of princes. Even in a speech, where he begged for supply, and where he should naturally have used every art to ingratiate himself with the parliament, he expressed himself in these terms; 'I conclude, then, the point, touching the power of kings, with this axiom of divinity, that, as to dispute, *what God may do*, is blasphemy, but *what God wills*, that divines may lawfully and do ordinarily dispute and discuss; so is it sedition in subjects to dispute, what a king may do in the height of his power. But just kings will ever be willing to declare what they will do, if they will not incur the curse of God. I will not be content, that my power be disputed upon; but I shall ever be willing to make the reason appear of my doings, and rule my actions according to *my laws*'. Notwithstanding the great extent of prerogative in that age, these expressions must certainly have given offence. But we may observe, that, as the King's despotism was more speculative than practical, so the independency of the commons was, at this time, the contrary; and, tho' strongly supported by their present situation as well as disposition, was too new and recent to be as yet founded on systematical principles and opinions.<sup>4</sup>

4. It may not be unworthy observation, that James in a Book called *The true law of free monarchies*, which he published a little before his accession to the crown of England, affirmed, 'That a good king, altho' he be above the law, will subject and frame his actions thereto, for example's sake to his subjects, and of his own free-will, but not as subject or bound thereto'. In another passage, 'According to the fundamental law already alleged, we daily see, that in the parliament (which is nothing else but the head-court of the king and his vassals) the laws are but craved by his subjects, and only made by him at their rogation, and with their advice. For albeit the king *make daily* statutes and ordinances, enjoining such pains thereto as he thinks meet, without any advice of parliament or estates; yet it lies in the power of no parliament to make any kind of law or statute, without his

This year was distinguished by a very memorable event, which gave great alarm and concern in England; the murder of the French monarch by the poniard of the fanatical Ravillac. That experience, that reputation, which this heroic prince had been acquiring for so many years; those treasures, which he had amassed; those armies, which he had enlisted and disciplined; were on the point of being employed in some mighty enterprize, which would probably have changed the face of Europe; when a period was put to his glory by a pious madman, who sacrificed at once his own life and that of the prince to his detestable prejudices. Were the designs, ascribed to Henry by the compilers of Sully's Memoirs, less chimerical, they might be admitted, on account of the testimony, by which that narration is supported: But such vast projects, had they been real, he must have rowled and digested in his mind for many years; and 'tis observable, that about a twelve-month before, he had been very instrumental in making peace betwixt Spain and the united provinces; measures, by which he deprived himself of the

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scepter be to it, for giving it the force of a law'. It is not to be supposed, that, at such a critical juncture, James had so little sense as, directly, in so material a point, to have openly shocked what were the universally established principles of that age: On the contrary, we are told by historians, that nothing tended more to facilitate his accession, than the good opinion entertained of him by the English, on account of his learned and judicious writings. The question, however, with regard to the royal power was, at this time, become a very dangerous point; and without employing ambiguous, insignificant terms, which determined nothing, it was impossible to please both King and parliament. Dr Cowell who had magnified the prerogative in words too intelligible, fell, this session, under the indignation of the commons. The King himself, after all his magnificent boasts, was obliged to make his escape thro' a distinction, which he framed betwixt a king *in abstracto* and a king *in concreto*: An abstract king, he said, had all power; but a concrete king was bound to observe the laws of the country, which he governed. But, how bound? By conscience only? Or might his subjects resist him and defend their privileges? This he thought not fit to explain. And so difficult is it to explain that point, that, to this day, whatever liberties may be used by private inquirers, the laws have thought proper to maintain a total silence with regard to it.

assistance of his firmest ally, and the best able to second his enterprizes. 'Tis more probable, that the war, which, at the time of his death, he intended to commence against Spain, was the sudden result of ambition, revenge, or love, in a powerful and military prince, who had long wished for an opportunity of attacking his enemy, and who was at last roused by a sudden motive or provocation. With his death, the glory of the French monarchy suffered an eclipse for some years; and that kingdom falling under an administration weak and bigotted, factious and disorderly, the Austrian greatness began anew to look formidable to Europe.

In England, the antipathy to the catholics revived a little upon this tragical event; and some of the laws, which had been formerly enacted for no other purpose than to keep these religionists in awe, began now to be executed with greater rigor and severity.

Tho' James's timidity and indolence fixed him, during most of his reign, in a very prudent inattention to foreign affairs, there happened, this year, an event in Europe of such mighty consequence as to rouze him from his lethargy, and summon up all his zeal and enterprize. A professor of divinity, called Vorstius, the disciple of Arminius, was called from a German to a Dutch university; and as he differed from his Britannic Majesty in some nice questions concerning the intimate essence and secret decrees of God, he was considered as a dangerous rival in scholastic fame, and was, at last, obliged to succumb under the legions of that royal doctor, whose syllogisms he might have refuted or eluded. If vigor was wanting in other incidents of James's reign, here he behaved even with haughtiness and insolence; and the states were obliged, after several remonstrances, to deprive Vorstius of his chair, and to banish him their dominions. The King carried no farther his persecutions against that professor; tho' he had very charitably hinted to the states, *That, as to the burning Vorstius for his blasphemies and atheism, he left them to their own christian wisdom; but surely never heretic better deserved the flames.*

It is to be remarked, that, at this period, all over Europe, except in Holland alone, the practice of burning heretics still prevailed, even in protestant countries; and instances were not wanting in England, during the reign of James. The Dutch themselves were, at last, by state-intrigue, and the tyranny of Prince Maurice, forced from their rational and humane maxims; and the persecuting bigots, a little after this time, signalized their power by the death of the virtuous Barneveldt, and the imprisonment of the virtuous and learned Grotius. The scholastic controversies about free-will, and grace, and predestination, begot these violent convulsions.

As far as any coherence can be traced among the systems of modern theology, we may observe, that the doctrine of absolute decrees has ever been intimately connected with the enthusiastic spirit; as it affords the highest subject of joy, triumph, and security, to the supposed elect, and exalts them, by infinite degrees, above the rest of mankind. All the first reformers adopted these principles; and the Jansenists too, a fanatical sect in France, not to mention the Mahometans in Asia, have ever embraced them. As the Lutheran establishments were subjected to episcopal jurisdiction, their fanatical genius gradually decayed, and men had leisure to perceive the absurdity of supposing God to punish, by infinite torments, what he himself, from all eternity, had unchangeably decreed. The King, tho' at this time, his Calvinistic education had rivetted him fast in the doctrine of absolute decrees, yet, being a zealous partizan of episcopacy, was insensibly ingaged, towards the end of his reign, to favor the milder theology of Arminius. Even in so great a doctor, the genius of the religion prevailed over its speculative tenets; and along with him, the whole clergy dropped the more rigid principles of absolute reprobation and unconditional decrees. Some noise was, at first, made about these innovations; but being drowned in the fury of faction and civil wars, which succeeded, the scholastic arguments made an insignificant figure amid those violent disputes about civil and ecclesiastical power, with which the nation was

agitated. And upon the restoration, the church, tho' she still retained her old subscriptions and articles of faith, was found to have totally changed her speculative doctrines, and to have embraced tenets more suitable to the genius of her discipline and worship, without its being possible to assign the precise period, in which the alteration was produced.

It may be worth observing, that, about this time, James, from his great desire to promote controversial divinity, erected a college at Chelsea for the entertainment of twenty persons, who should be entirely employed in refuting the papists and puritans. All the efforts of the great Bacon could not procure an establishment for the cultivation of natural philosophy: Even to this day, no society has been instituted for the polishing and fixing our language. The only encouragement, which the sovereign in England has ever given to any thing, that has the pretext of science, was this short-lived establishment of James; an institution quite superfluous, considering the unhappy propensity, which, at that time, so universally possessed the nation to polemical divinity.

To consider James in a more advantageous light, we must take a survey of him as the legislator of Ireland; and most of the institutions, which he had framed for the civilizing that kingdom, being finished about this period, it may not here be improper to give some account of them. He frequently boasts of the management of Ireland as his masterpiece; and, it will appear, upon inquiry, that his vanity, in this particular, was not altogether without foundation.

Tho' the dominion of the English over that fine island, had been established above four centuries, it may safely be affirmed, that their authority, till the latter end of Elizabeth, had been little more than nominal. The Irish princes and nobles, divided among themselves, readily payed the exterior marks of obeisance to a power, which they were not able to resist; but, as no durable force was ever upheld to retain them to their duty, they relapsed still into their

former state of independence. Too weak to introduce order and obedience among the rude inhabitants, the English authority was yet sufficient to check the growth of any enterprizing genius among the natives: And, tho' it could bestow no true form of civil government, it was able to prevent the rise of any such form, from the internal combination or subjection of the Irish.

Most of the English institutions too, by which that island was governed, were to the last degree absurd, and such as no state before had ever thought of, for the preserving dominion over its conquered provinces.

The English nation, all on fire for the project of subduing France, a project, whose successs was the most improbable, and would to them have proved the most pernicious; neglected all other enterprizes, to which their situation so strongly invited them, and which would have brought them, in time, an accession of riches, grandeur, and security. The small army which they maintained in Ireland, they never supplied regularly with pay; and as no money could be levied from the island, which possessed none, they gave their soldiers the privilege of free quarter upon the natives. Rapine and insolence inflamed the hatred, which prevailed betwixt the conquerors and the conquered: Want of security among the Irish, introducing despair, nourished still farther the sloth, so natural to that uncultivated people.

But the English carried farther their ill-judged tyranny. Instead of inviting the Irish to adopt the more civilized customs of their conquerors, they even refused, tho' earnestly solicited, to communicate to them the privilege of their laws, and every where marked them out as aliens and as enemies. Thrown out of the protection of justice, the natives could find security no where but in force; and flying the neighborhood of cities, which they could not approach with safety, they sheltered themselves in their marshes and forrests from the insolence of their inhuman masters. Being treated like wild beasts, they became such; and, joining the ardor of revenge to their yet untamed barbarity, they grew every day more untractable and dangerous.

As the English princes esteemed the conquest of the dispersed Irish to be more the object of time and patience than the source of military glory, they willingly delegated that office to private adventurers, who, inlisting soldiers at their own charge, conquered provinces of that island, which they converted to their own profit. Separate jurisdictions and principalities were established by these lordly conquerors: The power of peace and war assumed: Military law exercised over the Irish, whom they subdued, and, by degrees, over the English, by whole assistance they conquered: And, after their dominion had once taken root esteeming the English institutions less favorable to barbarous empire, they degenerated into mere Irish, and abandoned the garb, language, manners and laws of their native country.

By all this imprudent conduct of England, the natives of its dependant state, remained still in that abject condition, into which the northern and western parts of Europe were sunk, before they received civility and slavery from the refined policy and irresistible bravery of Rome. Even at the end of the sixteenth century, when every christian nation was cultivating with ardor every civil art of life, that island, lying in a temperate climate, enjoying a fertile soil, accessible in its situation, possessed of innumerable harbors, was still, notwithstanding these advantages, covered with inhabitants, whose customs and manners approached nearer those of savages than of barbarians.

As the brutality and ignorance of the Irish was extreme, they were sunk below the reach of that curiosity and love of novelty, by which every other people in Europe had been seized at the beginning of that century, and which had engaged them in innovations and religious disputes, with which they were still so violently agitated. The antient superstition, the practices and observances of their fathers, mingled and polluted with many wild opinions, still maintained an unshaken empire over them; and the example alone of the English was sufficient to render the reformation odious to the prejudiced and discontented Irish. The old opposition of manners, laws, and interest, was now inflamed

by religious antipathy; and the subduing and civilizing that country seemed to become every day more difficult and impracticable.

But, from the extremity of the disease, arose the remedy. The Irish, stimulated by their priests, and solicited by Spain, had openly taken arms against the English government; and, as they received supplies of men and money from Philip II their revolt threatened the most dangerous consequences. The prudent vigor of Elizabeth was roused: A disciplined army of 20,000 men was sent over; and, for several years, regularly payed and recruited: The warlike enterprizes were conducted with method and constancy: The spirit of the Irish intirely subdued: The Spaniards expelled: And the last act of that memorable reign was the pacification of the island, and its final subjection to the English empire.

The more difficult task still remained, to civilize the barbarous inhabitants, to reconcile them to laws and industry, and to render their subjection durable and useful to the crown of England. James proceeded in this work by a steddy, regular, and well concerted plan; and, in the space of nine years, according to Sir John Davis, he made greater advances towards the reformation of that kingdom, than had been made in the 440 years, which had elapsed since the conquest was attempted.

It was first requisite to abolish the Irish customs, which supplied the place of laws, and which were calculated to keep that people for ever in a state of barbarism and disorder.

By the *Brehon* law or custom, no crime, however enormous, was punished with death, but by a fine or pecuniary mulct, which was levied upon the criminal. Murder itself was attoned for in this manner; and each man, according to his rank, had a different rate or value, affixed to him, which, if any one was willing to pay, he needed not fear the assassinating his enemy. This rate was called his *eric*. When Sir William Fitzwilliams, being Lord deputy, told Maquire, that he was to send a sheriff into Fermann, which, a little

before, had been made a county, and subjected to the English law; *Your sheriff, said Maquire, shall be welcome to me: But, let me know, before-hand, his eric, or the price of his head; that, if my people cut it off, I may levy the money upon the county.* As for oppression, extortion, and other trespasses, so little were they regarded, that no penalty was affixed to them, and no redress from such offences could ever be obtained.

The customs of *Gavelkinde* and *Tanistry* were attended with the same absurdity in the distribution of property. Upon the death of any person, his land, by the custom of Gavelkinde, was divided among all the males of the sept or family, both bastard and legitimate: And, after partition made, if any of the sept died, his portion was not shared out among his sons; but the chieftain, at his discretion, made a new partition of all the lands, belonging to that sept, and gave every one his share. As no man, by reason of this custom, enjoyed the fixed property of any land; to build, to plant, to inclose, to cultivate, to improve, would have been so much lost labor.

The cheiftains and the Tanists, who were the apparent successors of the former; tho' drawn from the principal families, were not hereditary, but were established by election, or more properly speaking, by force and violence. Their authority was very absolute, and, notwithstanding that certain lands were assigned to the office, its chief profit resulted from exactions, dues, assessments, for which there was no fixed law, and which were levied at pleasure. Hence arose that common bye-word among the Irish, *That they dwelt westward of the law, which dwelt beyond the river of the Barrow:* Meaning the country, where the English inhabited, and which extended not beyond the compass of twenty miles, lying in the neighborhood of Dublin.

After abolishing these Irish customs, and substituting English law in their place; James, having taken all the natives under his protection, and declared them free citizens, proceeded to govern them by a regular administration, military as well as civil.

A sufficient army was maintained, its discipline inspected, and its pay transmitted from England, in order to keep the soldiers from preying upon the country, as had been usual in former reigns. When Odoghartic raised an insurrection, a reinforcement was sent over, and the flames of that rebellion were immediately extinguished.

All minds being first quieted by an universal indemnity, circuits were established, justice administered, oppression banished, and crimes and disorders of every kind severely punished. As the Irish had been universally ingaged in the rebellion against Elizabeth, a resignation of all the rights, which had been formerly granted them to separate jurisdictions, was rigorously exacted; and no authority, but that of the King and the law, was permitted thro'out the kingdom.

A resignation of all private estates was even required; and, when they were restored, the proprietors received them under such conditions as might prevent, for the future, all tyranny and oppression of the common people. The value of the dues, which the nobles usually claimed from their vassals, was estimated at a fixed sum, and all further exactions prohibited under severe penalties.

The whole province of Ulster having fallen to the crown by the attainer of rebels, a company was established in London, for planting new colonies in that fertile country: The property was divided into moderate shares, the largest not exceeding 2000 acres: Tenants were brought over from England and Scotland: The Irish were removed from the hills and fastnesses, and settled in the open country: Husbandry and the arts were taught them: A fixed habitation secured: Plunder and robbery punished: And, by these means, Ulster, from being the most wild and disorderly province of all Ireland, soon became the best cultivated and most civilized.

Such were the arts, by which James introduced humanity and justice among a people, who had ever been buried in the most profound barbarism. Noble cares! much superior to the vain and criminal glory of conquests; but requiring

*James I*

ages of perseverance and attention to perfect what had been so happily begun.

A laudable act of justice was, about this time, executed in England upon Lord Sanquhir, a Scotch nobleman of illustrious birth, who had been guilty of a base assassination upon Turner, a fencing-master. The English nation, who were generally dissatisfied with the Scotch, were enraged at this crime, equally mean and atrocious; but James appeased them, by preferring the severity of law to the intercession of the friends and family of the criminal.

### CHAP. III

*Death of Prince Henry – Marriage of the Princess Elizabeth with the Palatine – Rise of Somerset – His marriage – Overbury poisoned – Fall of Somerset – Rise of Buckingham – Cautionary towns delivered – Affairs of Scotland*

THIS year the sudden death of Henry, Prince of Wales, diffused an universal grief thro'out the nation. Tho' youth and royal birth, both of them strong allurements, prepossess men mightily in favor of the early age of all princes; 'tis with peculiar fondness, that historians mention Henry: And, in every respect, his merit seems to have been very extraordinary. He had not reached his eighteenth year, and he possessed already more dignity in his behavior, and commanded more respect, than his father with all his age, learning, and experience. Neither his high fortune, nor his youth, had seduced him into any irregular pleasures: Business and ambition seem to have been his sole passion. His inclinations, as well as exercises, were intirely martial. The French ambassador, coming to take leave of him, and ask his commands for France, found him at the exercise of the pike; *Tell your King, said he, in what occupation you left me ingaged.*<sup>1</sup> He had conceived great affection and esteem for the brave Sir Walter Raleigh. It was his saying, *Sure no king but my father would keep such a bird in a cage.* He seems, indeed, to have nourished too violent a contempt for the King, on account of his pedantry and pusillanimity; and by that means, struck in with the restless and martial spirit of the English nation. Had he lived, he had probably promoted the glory, perhaps not the felicity, of his people. The

1. The French monarch had given particular orders to his ministers to cultivate the Prince's friendship; who must soon, said he, have chief authority in England, where the king and queen are held in so little estimation. See *Dep. de la Boderie.*

unhappy prepossession, which men commonly entertain in favor of ambition, courage, enterprize, and other warlike virtues, ingages generous natures, who always love fame, into such pursuits, as destroy their own peace, and that of the rest of mankind.

Violent reports were propagated, as if Henry had been carried off by poison; but the physicians, on opening his body, found no symptoms to confirm such an opinion. The bold and criminal malignity of men's tongues and pens spared not even the King on that occasion. But that Prince's character seems to have failed rather in the extreme of facility and humanity, than in that of cruelty and violence. His indulgence to Henry was great, and perhaps imprudent, by giving him a very large and independent settlement, even in so early youth.

The marriage of the Princess, Elizabeth, with Frederic, the Elector Palatine, was consummated some time after the death of the Prince, and served to dissipate the grief, which arose on that melancholy event. But this marriage, tho' celebrated with great joy and festivity, proved, itself, a very unfortunate event to the King, as well as to his son-in-law, and had ill consequences on the reputation and fortune of both. The Elector, trusting to so great an alliance, ingaged in enterprizes beyond his strength: And the King, not supporting him in his distress, lost entirely, in the end of his life, what remained of the affections and esteem of his own subjects.

Except during sessions of parliament, the history of this reign may more properly be called the history of the court than that of the nation. A most interesting object had, for some years, ingaged the attention of the court: It was a favorite, and one beloved by James with so profuse and unlimited an affection, as left no room for any rival or competitor. About the end of the year 1609, Robert Carre, a youth of twenty years of age, and of a good family in Scotland, arrived in London, after having passed some time on his travels. All his natural accomplishments consisted in

good looks: All his acquired abilities, in an easy air and mien. He had letters of recommendation to his countryman Lord Hay, and that Nobleman no sooner cast his eye upon him, than he discovered talents, sufficient to entitle him immediately to the absolute government of three kingdoms. Apprized of the King's passion for youth, and beauty, and exterior appearance, he studied how matters might be so adjusted, as that this new object should make the strongest impression upon him. Without mentioning him at court, he assigned him the office, at a match of tilting, of presenting to the King his buckler and device; and hoped that he would attract the attention of that monarch. Fortune proved favorable to his design, by an incident, which bore, at first, a contrary aspect. When Carre was advancing to execute his office, his unruly horse flung him, and broke his leg in the King's presence. James approached him with pity and concern: Love and affection arose on the sight of his beauty and tender years; and the Prince ordered him immediately to be lodged in the palace, and to be carefully attended. He himself, after the tilting, paid him a visit in his chamber, and returned frequently during his confinement. The ignorance and simplicity of the boy finished the conquest, begun by his exterior graces and accomplishments. Other princes have been fond of chusing their favorite from the lower ranks among their subjects, and have reposed themselves on him with the more unreserved confidence and affection, that the object has been beholden to their bounty for every honor and acquisition: James was desirous, that his favorite should also derive from him all his sense, experience, and knowledge. Highly conceited of his own wisdom, he pleased himself with the fancy, that this raw youth, by his lessons and instructions, would, in a little time, be equal to his safest ministers, and be initiated into all the profound mysteries of government, on which he set so high a value. And as this kind of creation was more perfectly his own work than any other, he seems to have indulged an unlimited fondness for his minion, beyond even that which he bore to his own children. He soon knighted him, created

him Viscount Rochester, gave him the garter, brought him into the privy council, and, tho' at first without assigning him any particular office, bestowed on him the supreme direction of all his business and political concerns. Suitable to this rapid advancement in confidence and honor, were the riches heaped upon the needy favorite; and while Salisbury and all the wisest ministers could scarce find expedients sufficient to keep in motion the o'erburthened machine of government, James, with unsparing hand, loaded with treasures this insignificant and useless pageant.

It is said, that the King found his pupil so ill educated, as to be ignorant even of the lowest rudiments of the Latin tongue; and that the monarch, laying aside the sceptre, took the birch into his royal hand, and instructed him in the principles of grammar. During the intervals of this noble occupation, affairs of state would be introduced; and the stripling, by the ascendant which he had acquired, was now enabled to repay in political, what he had received in grammatical instruction. Such scenes, and such incidents, are the more ridiculous, tho' the less odious, that the passion of James seems not to have contained in it any thing criminal or flagitious. History charges herself willingly with a relation of the great crimes, or the great virtues of mankind; but she appears to fall from her dignity, when necessitated to dwell on such frivolous events and ignoble personages.

The favorite was not, at first, so intoxicated with advancement, as not to be sensible of his own ignorance and inexperience. He had recourse to the assistance and advice of a friend; and he was more fortunate in his choice, than is usual with such pampered minions. In Sir Thomas Overbury he met with a judicious and sincere counsellor, who, building all hopes of his own preferment on that of the young favorite, endeavored to instill into him the principles of prudence and discretion. By officiously serving every body, Carre was taught to abate the envy, which might attend his sudden elevation: By marking a preference for the English, he learned to escape the prejudices, which prevailed against his country. And as long as he was contented to be ruled by

Overbury's friendly counsels, he enjoyed, what is rare, the highest favor of the Prince, without being hated by the public.

To compleat the measure of courtly happiness, nought was wanting but a kind mistress; and, where high fortune concurred with all the graces of youth and beauty, this circumstance could not be difficult to attain. But it was here that the favorite met with that rock, on which all his fortunes were wrecked, and which plunged him for ever into an abyss of infamy, guilt, and misery.

No sooner had James mounted the throne of England, than he remembered his friendship for the unfortunate families of Howard and Devereux, who had suffered for their attachment to the cause of Mary and to his own. Having restored young Essex to his blood and dignity, and conferred the titles of Suffolk and Northampton on two brothers of the house of Norfolk, he sought the farther pleasure of uniting these families by the marriage of Essex with Lady Frances Howard, daughter to the Earl of Suffolk. She was only thirteen, he fourteen years of age; and it was thought proper, till both should attain the age of puberty, that he should go abroad, and pass some time in his travels. He returned into England after four years absence, and was pleased to find the Countess in the full lustre of beauty, and possessed of the love and admiration of the whole court. But, when the Earl approached, and claimed the privileges of a husband, he met with nothing but symptoms of aversion and disgust, and a flat refusal of any farther familiarities. He applied to her parents, who constrained her to attend him into the country, and to partake of his bed: But nothing could overcome her rigid sullenness and obstinacy; and she still rose from his side, without having shared the nuptial pleasures. Disgusted with re-iterated denials, he at last gave over the pursuit, and separating himself from her, thenceforth abandoned her conduct to her own will and discretion.

Such coldness and aversion in Lady Essex arose not without an attachment to another object. The favorite had

opened his addresses, and had been too successful in making impression on the tender heart of the young Countess. She imagined, that, as long as she refused the embraces of Essex, she never could be deemed his wife, and that a separation and divorce might still open the way for a new marriage with her beloved Rochester. Tho' their passion was so violent, and their opportunities of intercourse so frequent, that they had already indulged themselves in all the gratifications of love, they still lamented their unhappy fate, while the union betwixt them was not intire and indissoluble. And the lover, as well as his mistress, was impatient, till their mutual ardor should be crowned with marriage.

So momentous an affair could not be concluded without consulting Overbury, with whom Rochester was accustomed to share all his secrets. As long as that faithful friend had considered his patron's attachment to the Countess of Essex merely as an affair of gallantry, he had favored its progress; and it was partly owing to the ingenious and passionate letters, which he dictated, that Rochester had met with such success in his addresses. Like an experienced courtier, he thought, that a conquest of this nature would throw a lustre on the youthful favorite, and would tend still further to endear him to James, who was charmed to hear of the amours of his court, and listened with attention to every tale of gallantry. But great was Overbury's alarm, when Rochester mentioned his design of marrying the Countess; and he used every method to dissuade his friend from so foolish an attempt. He represented, how invidious, how difficult an enterprize, to procure her a divorce from her husband: How dangerous, how shameful, to take into his own bed a profligate woman, who, being married to a young nobleman of the first rank, had not scrupled to prostitute her character, and to bestow favors on the object of a capricious and momentary passion. And, in the zeal of friendship, he went so far as to threaten the favorite, that he would separate himself for ever from him, if he could so far forget his honor and his interest as to prosecute the intended marriage.

Rochester had the weakness to reveal this conversation to the Countess of Essex; and, when her rage and fury broke out against Overbury, he had also the weakness to enter into her projects of revenge, and to vow vengeance against his friend, for the utmost instance, which he could receive, of his faithful friendship. Some contrivance was requisite for the execution of their purpose. Rochester addressed himself to the King; and after complaining, that his own indulgence to Overbury had begot in him a degree of arrogance and presumption, which was extremely disagreeable, he procured a commission for his embassy to Russia; which he represented as a retreat for his friend, both profitable and honorable. When consulted by Overbury, he earnestly dissuaded him from accepting this offer, and took on himself the task of satisfying the King, if he should be any way displeased at the refusal. To the King again, he aggravated the insolence of Overbury's conduct, and obtained a warrant for committing him to the tower, which James intended as a slight punishment for his disobedience. The lieutenant of the tower was a creature of Rochester, and had lately been put into the office for this very purpose: He confined Overbury so strictly, that the unhappy prisoner was debarred from the sight even of his nearest relations; and no communication of any kind was allowed with him, during near six months, which he lived in prison.

This obstacle being removed, the lovers pursued their purpose; and the King himself, forgetting the dignity of his character, and his friendship for the family of Essex, entered zealously into the project of procuring the Countess a divorce from her husband. Essex too embraced the opportunity of separating himself from a bad woman, by whom he was hated; and he was willing to favor their success by any honorable expedient. The pretext for a divorce was his incapacity to fulfil the conjugal duties; and he confessed, that, with regard to the Countess, he was conscious of such an infirmity, tho' he was not sensible of it with regard to any other woman. In her place too, it is said, a young virgin was substituted under a mask, to undergo the legal inspec-

tion by a jury of matrons. After such a trial, seconded by court-influence, and supported by the ridiculous opinion of fascination or witchcraft, the sentence of divorce was issued betwixt the Earl of Essex and his Countess. And, to crown the scandalous scene, the King, anxious lest the lady should lose any rank by her new marriage, bestowed on his beloved minion the title of Earl of Somerset.

Notwithstanding this success, the Countess of Somerset was not satisfied, till she should further satiate her revenge on Overbury; and she engaged her husband, as well as her uncle, the Earl of Northampton, in the atrocious design of taking him off secretly by poison. Fruitless attempts were re-iterated by weak poisons; but, at last, they gave him one so sudden and violent, that the symptoms were apparent to every one, who approached him. His interment was hurried on with the greatest precipitation; and, tho' a strong suspicion immediately prevailed in the public, the full proof of the crime was not brought to light, till some years afterwards.

The first catastrophe of Overbury increased or begot the suspicion, that the Prince of Wales had been carried off by poison, given him by Somerset. Men considered not, that the contrary inference was much juster. If Somerset was so great a novice in this detestable art, that, in above five months time, a man, who was his prisoner, and attended by none but his emissaries, could not be dispatched but in so bungling a manner; how could it be imagined, that a young prince, living in his own court, surrounded by his own friends and domestics, could be exposed to Somerset's attempts, and be taken off by so subtile a poison, if such a one exist, as would elude the skill of the most experienced physicians?

The ablest minister whom James ever possessed, the Earl of Salisbury, was dead:<sup>2</sup> Suffolk, a man of slender capacity, had succeeded him in his office: And it was now his task to supply, from an exhausted treasury, the profusion of James and his young favorite. The title of baronet, invented by

Salisbury, was sold; and two hundred patents of that species of knighthood, were disposed of for so many thousand pounds: Each rank of nobility had also its price affixed to it: Privy seals were circulated to the value of 200,000 pound: Benevolences were exacted, or free gifts, to the extent of 52,000 pound: And some monopolies, of no great value, were erected. But all these expedients proved insufficient to supply the King's necessities. However small the hopes of success, a new parliament must be summoned, and this dangerous expedient, for such it was now become, once more be put to the trial.

When the commons were assembled, they discovered an extraordinary alarm, on account of the rumor, which was spred abroad concerning *undertakers*. It was reported, that several persons, attached to the King, had entered into a confederacy; and having laid a regular plan for the new elections, had distributed their interest all over England, and had undertaken to secure a majority for the court. So ignorant were the commons, that they knew not this incident to be the first infallible symptom of any regular or established liberty. Had they been contented to follow the maxims of their predecessors, who, as the Earl of Salisbury said to the last parliament, never, but thrice in six hundred years, refused a supply; they needed not dread, that the crown should ever interest itself in their elections. Formerly, the Kings even insisted, that none of their houshold should ever be elected members; and, tho' the charter was afterwards declared void, Henry VI from his great favor to the city of York, conferred a peculiar privilege on its citizens, that they should be exempted from this trouble.<sup>3</sup> 'Tis well known, that, in ancient times, a seat in the house being considered as a burthen, attended neither with honor nor profit; it was requisite for the counties and burroughs to pay fees to their representatives. About this time, a seat began to be regarded as an honor, and the country-gentlemen contended for it; tho' the practice of levying wages for the

3. Coke's institutes, part 4. chap. i. of charters of exemption.

parliament-men was not altogether discontinued. It was not till long afterwards, when liberty was thorowly established, and popular assemblies entered into every branch of public business, that the members began to join profit to honor, and the crown found it necessary to distribute among them all the considerable offices of the kingdom.

So little skill or so small means had the courtiers, in James's reign, for managing elections, that this house of commons showed the same or a stronger spirit of liberty than the foregoing; and instead of entering upon the business of supply, as urged by the King and the ministers, they immediately resumed the subject which had been broached last parliament, and disputed his Majesty's power of laying on new customs and impositions, by the mere authority of his prerogative. 'Tis remarkable, that, in their debates on this subject, the courtiers frequently pleaded, as a precedent, the example of all the other hereditary monarchs in Europe, and mentioned particularly the kings of France and Spain; nor was this reasoning received by the house, either with surprize or indignation. The members of the opposite party, either contented themselves with denying the justness of the inference, or they disputed the truth of the observation. And a patriot-member in particular, Sir Roger Owen, even in arguing against the impositions, very frankly allowed, that the king of England was endued with as ample power and prerogative as any prince in Christendom. The nations on the continent, we may observe, enjoyed still, in that age, some remains of liberty.

The commons applied to the lords for a conference with regard to impositions. A speech of the bishop of Lincoln, reflecting on the lower house, begot some altercation; and the King seized the opportunity of dissolving immediately, with great indignation, a parliament, which had shown so firm a resolution of retrenching his prerogative, without communicating, in return, the smallest supply to his necessities. He carried his resentment so far as even to throw into prison some of the members, who had been the most forward in their opposition to his measures. In vain, did he plead in

excuse for this violence, the example of Elizabeth and other princes of the line of Tudor. The people and the parliament, without abandoning for ever all their liberties and privileges, could acquiesce in none of these precedents, however frequent. And were the authority of such precedents admitted, the utmost, that could be inferred, is, that the constitution of England was, at that time, an inexplicable monster, whose jarring and discordant parts must soon destroy each other, and from the dissolution of the old, engender some new form of civil government, more uniform and consistent.

In the public and avowed conduct of the King and the house of commons, thro'out this whole reign, there appears sufficient cause of quarrel and disgust; yet we are not to imagine, that this was the sole foundation of that jealousy, which prevailed betwixt them. During debates in the house, it often happened, that a particular member, more ardent and zealous than the rest, would display the most violent sentiments of liberty, which the commons contented themselves to hear with silence and seeming approbation; and the King, informed of these harangues, concluded the whole house to be infected with the same principles, and to be engaged in a combination against his prerogative. The King, on the other hand, tho' he valued himself extremely on his king-craft, and was not altogether incapable of dissimulation, seems to have been very little endued with the gift of secrecy; but openly, at his table, in all companies, inculcated those monarchical tenets, with which he was so much infatuated. Before a numerous audience, he had expressed himself with great disparagement of the common law of England, and had given the preference, in the strongest terms, to the civil law: And for this indiscretion he found himself obliged to apologize, in a speech to the former parliament. As a specimen of his usual liberty of talk, we may mention a story, tho' it passed some time afterwards, which we meet with in the life of Waller, and which that poet used frequently to repeat. When Waller was young, he had the curiosity to go to court; and he stood in the circle, and saw James dine; where, among other company,

there sat at table two bishops, Neile and Andrews. The King proposed aloud this question, Whether he might not take his subjects money, when he needed it, without all this formality of parliament. Neile replied, *God forbid you should not: For you are the breath of our nostrils.* Andrews declined answering, and said, he was not skilled in parliamentary cases: But upon the King's urging him, and saying he would admit of no evasion, the bishop replied very pleasantly; *Why then, I think your Majesty may very lawfully take my brother Neile's money: For he offers it.*

The favorite had hitherto escaped the inquiry of justice; but he had not escaped that silent voice, which can make itself be heard amid all the hurry and flattery of a court, and astonishes the criminal with a just representation of his most secret enormities. Conscious of the murder of his friend, Somerset received small consolation from the enjoyments of love, or the utmost kindness and indulgence of his sovereign. The graces of his youth gradually disappeared, the gaiety of his manners was obscured, his politeness, and obliging behavior were changed into sullenness and silence. And the King, whose affections had been engaged by these superficial accomplishments, began to estrange himself from a man, who no longer contributed to his amusement.

The sagacious courtiers discovered the first symptoms of this alienation: Somerset's enemies seized the opportunity, and offered a new minion to the King. George Villiers, a youth of one and twenty, younger brother of a good family, returned at this time from his travels, and was remarked for the advantages of a handsome person, genteel air, and fashionable apparel. At a comedy, he was purposely placed full in James's eye, and immediately engaged the attention, and, in the same instant, the affections of that monarch. Ashamed of his sudden attachment, he endeavored, but in vain, to conceal the partiality which he felt for the handsome stranger; and he employed all his profound politics to fix him in his service, without seeming to desire it. He declared his resolution not to confer any office on him, unless

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entreathed by the Queen; and he pretended, that it should only be in complaisance to her choice, he would agree to admit him near his person. The Queen was immediately applied to; but she, well knowing the extremes to which the King carried these attachments, refused, at first, to lend her countenance to this new passion. It was not till entreated by Abbot, Archbishop of Canterbury, a decent prelate, and one much prejudiced against Somerset, that she would descend to oblige her husband, by asking this favor of him. And the King, thinking now that all appearances were fully saved, no longer constrained his affection, but immediately bestowed the office of cup-bearer on young Villiers.

The whole court were thrown into parties betwixt the two minions; while some endeavored to advance the rising fortunes of Villiers, and others esteemed it safer to adhere to the established credit of Somerset. The King himself, divided betwixt inclination and decorum, increased the doubt and ambiguity of the courtiers; and the stern jealousy of the old favorite, who refused every advance of friendship from his rival, engendered perpetual quarrels betwixt their several partizans. But the discovery of Somerset's guilt in the murder of Overbury, at last decided the controversy, and exposed him to the ruin and infamy which he so well merited.

An apothecary's prentice, who had been employed in making up the poisons, having retired to Flushing, began to talk very freely of the whole secret; and the affair at last came to the ears of Trumbal, the King's envoy in the low countrys. By his means, Sir Ralph Winwood, secretary of state, was informed; and he carried the intelligence immediately to James. The King, alarmed and astonished to find such enormous guilt in a man whom he had admitted into his bosom, sent for Sir Edward Coke, Lord chief justice, and earnestly recommended to him the most rigorous and unbyassed scrutiny. This injunction was executed with great industry and severity: The whole labyrinth of guilt carefully unravelled: The lesser criminals, Sir Jervis Elvis, lieutenant of the tower, Franklin, Weston, Mrs Turner, were first tried

and condemned: Somerset and his Countess were afterwards found guilty: Northampton's death, a little before, had saved him from a like fate.

It may not be unworthy of remark, that Coke, in the trial of Mrs Turner, told her, that she was guilty of the seven deadly sins: She was a whore, a bawd, a sorcerer, a witch, a papist, a felon, and a murderer. And what may more surprize us, Bacon, then attorney-general, took care to observe, that poisoning was a popish trick. Such were the bigotted prejudices which prevailed in this age. Stowe tells us, that, when the King came to Newcastle, on his first entry into England, he gave liberty to all the prisoners, except those confined for treason, murder, and papistry. When one considers these circumstances, the gunpowder-conspiracy appears the less surprizing.

All the accomplices in Overbury's murder received the punishment due to their crime: But the King bestowed a pardon on the principals, Somerset and the Countess. It must be confessed, that James's fortitude had been highly laudable, had he persisted in his first intention of consigning over to severe justice all the criminals: But let us still beware of blaming him too harshly, if, on the approach of the fatal hour, he scrupled to deliver into the hands of the executioner, persons whom he had once favored with his most tender affections. To soften the rigor of their fate, after some years imprisonment, he restored them to their liberty, and conferred on them a pension, with which they retired, and languished out old age in infamy and obscurity. Their guilty loves were turned into the most deadly hatred; and they passed many years together in the same house, without any intercourse or correspondence.

Several historians, in relating these events, have insisted much on the dissimulation of James's behavior, when he delivered Somerset into the hands of the chief justice; on the insolent menaces of that criminal; on his peremptory refusal to stand a trial; and on the extreme anxiety of the King during the whole progress of this affair. Allowing all these circumstances to be true, of which some are suspicious,

if not palpably false, the great remains of tenderness, which James still felt for Somerset, may, perhaps, be sufficient to account for them. That favorite was high-spirited; and resolute rather to perish than live under the infamy to which he was exposed. James was sensible that the pardoning so great a criminal, which was of itself invidious, would become still more unpopular, if his obstinate and stubborn behavior on his trial should augment the public hatred against him. At least, the unreserved confidence, in which he had indulged his favorite for several years, might render Somerset master of so many secrets, that it is impossible, without farther light, to assign the particular cause of that superiority, which, 'tis said, he appeared so much to assume.

The fall of Somerset and his banishment from court opened the way for Villiers to mount up at once to the full height of favor, of honors, and of riches. Had James's passion been governed by common rules of prudence, the office of cup-bearer would have attached Villiers to his person, and might well have contented one of his age and family; nor would any one, who was not cynically austere, have much censured the singularity of the King's taste in amusement. But such advancement was far inferior to the fortune which he intended for his favorite. In the course of a few years, he created him Viscount Villiers, Earl, Marquis, and Duke of Buckingham, knight of the garter, master of the horse, chief justice in Eyre, warden of the cinque ports, master of the king's bench office, steward of Westminster, constable of Windsor, and Lord high admiral of England. His mother obtained the title of Countess of Buckingham: His brother was created Viscount Purbeck; and a numerous train of needy relations were all pushed up into credit and authority. And thus the fond Prince, while he meant to play the tutor to his favorite, and to train him up in the rules of prudence and politics, took an infallible method, by loading him with premature and exorbitant honors, to render him, for ever, rash, precipitant, and insolent.

A young minion to gratify with pleasure, a necessitous family to supply with riches, were enterprizes too great for the empty exchequer of James. In order to obtain a little money, the cautionary towns must be delivered up to the Dutch; a measure which has been severely blamed by almost all historians; and I may venture to affirm, that, tho' it must be owned somewhat impolitic, it has been censured much beyond its real weight and importance.

When Queen Elizabeth opened her treasures for the support of the infant republic; beside the view of securing herself against the exorbitant power and ambition of Spain, she still reserved the prospect of re-imbursement; and she got consigned into her hands the three important fortresses of Flushing, the Brille, and Rammekins, as pledges for the money which was due to her. Indulgent to the necessitous condition of the states, she agreed that the debt should bear no interest, and she stipulated, that, if ever England made peace with Spain, she should pay the troops which garrisoned those fortresses.<sup>4</sup> It appears from Jeanin's letters, that the states had expected a very considerable abatement of the debt, even at a time when James's exchequer was in tolerable order, from the only considerable supply which his parliament had ever granted him: Much more were they encouraged in this hope by his present necessitous condition. In this negotiation they employed Caron, their minister, who offered the King a little above the third of the money which was due to him, and which amounted in the whole to about L.700,000. It occurred to James, that the pay of the garrisons was so burthensome on his slender revenue, that very large arrears were owing them, and they were ready to mutiny for want of subsistence; that, since the King's accession, above L.300,000 had been expended for their support, and there appeared no end of these charges; that by the strictest computation the third of the sum, paid him presently, was much preferable to the whole payable ten years after; that the states, trusting to his pacific maxims, as well as to the close union of interest and affection with

4. Rymer, tom. xvi. p. 341.

his people, were no-ways anxious for the recovery of these places, and might allow them to lye long in his hands, if full payment was insisted on; that this union was really so intimate, that no reasonable measures for mutual support would be wanting from the Dutch, even tho' freed from the dependance of these garrisons; and that the exchequer of the republic was at present very low, insomuch that they found difficulty, now that the aids of France were withdrawn, to maintain themselves in that posture of defence, which was requisite during the truce with Spain. These reasons, along with his urgent wants, induced the King to accept of Caron's offer; and he evacuated the cautionary towns, which held the states in total subjection, and which an ambitious and enterprising prince would have regarded as his most invaluable possessions. This is the date of the full liberty of the Dutch commonwealth. Ever since, they have supported themselves with dignity and independance in all the transactions of Europe; and, tho' their trading companies have been guilty of some violences, yet the republic has remained closely united with England, whenever that kingdom has acted in conformity to its own true interests. Happy it was for both states that the republican parliament and Charles II when they embraced extravagant systems of politics, had not possession of the cautionary towns; by which they would have been enabled to crush that illustrious commonwealth, and deprive the nation for ever of its best and firmest ally.

When the crown of England devolved on James, it might have been foreseen by the Scotch nation, that the independance of their kingdom, the object, for which their ancestors had shed such an ocean of blood, would now be utterly lost; and that, if both states persevered in maintaining separate laws and parliaments, the weaker would feel more sensibly the subjection, than if it had been totally subdued by force of arms. But these views did not generally occur. The glory of having given a sovereign to their powerful enemy, the advantages of present peace and tranquillity,

the riches acquired from the munificence of their master; these considerations secured their dutiful obedience to a Prince, who daily gave such sensible proofs of his friendship and partiality towards them. Never had the authority of any king, who resided among them, been so firmly established as was that of James, even when absent; and as the administration had been hitherto conducted with great order and tranquillity, there had happened no occurrence to draw thither our attention. But this summer, the King was resolved to pay a visit to his native country, in order to renew his antient friendships and connexions, and to introduce that change of ecclesiastical discipline and government, on which his mind was extremely bent.

The kingdom of Scotland, as at present, so at that time, was possessed by two kinds of inhabitants, very different in their language, manners, customs, habit, and whole train of life. The lowlands were peopled by a race of men, who, if we may judge by their tongue, a more certain proof than any imperfect and fabulous annals, must necessarily have been of Saxon origin; a tribe of that numerous nation, who, from the northern parts of Germany, over-ran, like a torrent, the better and more habitable parts of this island. The hills were possessed by the antient inhabitants, of Celtic extraction, who were able, in that inaccessible country, to secure themselves against the fury of their destructive invaders, and to save a relict of that once mighty people. Both these races of men, however different in other respects, lived, at that time, in a manner somewhat disorderly; governed by antient customs more than by laws, and attached to their own families more than to their prince or country. The highlanders, like the Irish, a branch of the same nation, were, all of them, divided into families, which the former called clans and the latter septs; and there was no person so low and vulgar in the tribe, who did not claim a common parentage with the richest and most powerful. But as the property of land in the highlands was fixed, and the greater part of every inheritance went to the eldest; the dignity of cheiftain became hereditary, and an order or subordination

was, by that means, preserved among the people, which, however barbarous, was superior to the savage condition into which the Irish were fallen. In the lowlands, the men of property preserved an attachment to their cheiftain or to the head of their family: The meaner tenants were supposed to be an inferior breed, and their obedience was secured to their masters by the usual connexions of interest and dependance. The weak authority of the laws thro'out every part of Scotland, made all the inhabitants seek for security by a close adherence to their own tribe, which alone was able to protect them: And this devoted attachment loosening the ties to their country, served still farther to weaken the authority of the laws.

These causes, as might naturally be imagined, operated with the greatest influence amidst those barbarous mountains; and at this day, their inhabitants, notwithstanding all the improvements introduced into other parts of the island, distinguish themselves by an obstinate adherence to their antient manners. The feudal law however was still preserved in great vigor, thro'out the whole kingdom, particularly in the low countries: Separate jurisdictions were maintained: Hereditary offices preserved: And an execution of justice took place, feeble, disorderly, partial, and tumultuous.

Amidst the contentions of such powerful vassals, who may be considered as petty princes rather than eminent nobles, the authority of the king, which was the same with that of the laws, was very uncertain and precarious. Like the Roman pontiff in the ages of superstition, the Scottish monarch, tho' possessed of extensive claims, enjoyed but little power; and when provoked by the rebellion of any potent baron, his usual resource was to animate some hostile clans against him, and to arm them with legal authority. These, enriched and aggrandized by the confiscations of the rebel cheiftain and his dependants, soon became formidable to their benefactor, and obliged him to have recourse to the same destructive politics for their extirpation. But notwithstanding this impotence of sovereign power, notwithstanding these inveterate animosities among the

several tribes; the English were seldom able to make great advantage of the intestine divisions among the Scotch, and never could establish their dominion over them. Being the only enemy with whom the northern kingdom ever was engaged, the national antipathy among the Scots, not diverted into any other channel, rose to an extreme height, and, in all cases of necessity, united the whole state, in opposition to so dangerous a foe. And being obliged, for their own support, to preserve an intimate correspondence with France, they thence received a degree of civility and knowledge, and imitated, at some distance, the other European nations, in all the principles of chivalry and gallantry, honor and military valor, which prevailed during those uncultivated ages.

As the dawn of arts appeared thro'out Europe in the sixteenth century, it might have been hoped, that, when they should reach Scotland in their farther progress, they would, as usual, put an end to that feudal anarchy, which there prevailed, and would introduce order and obedience amongst its uncivilized inhabitants. But before that happy period, another accident happened, which lessened the authority of the nobles, and ballanced their influence over the people. The protestant fanaticism, more rapid in its progress, soon pierced into that remote country; and, being at first strongly opposed by the supreme power, civil as well as ecclesiastical, it rose to a degree of fury, and with the most destructive violence bore down all opposition. As it is not the genius of enthusiastic religions to endow their clergy with extensive power or ample revenues, the plunder of the Romish church was shared out among the laity, and the ecclesiastical authority of bishops was, in a manner, annihilated. And tho' the new preachers acquired a mighty influence over the people, it was not merely by their priestly rank or office, but by the seeming austerity of their lives, and the eloquence of their zealous lectures. They did not, properly speaking, lead the multitude: They only ran before them, in all their fanatical extravagancies.

But however great the loss, which the nobility sustained

from these innovations, the crown was no gainer. Determined enemies to monarchy, by principle as well as inclination, the religious orators placed a vanity in affronting their prince, and would acknowlege no sovereign but Christ, whose throne, being established in heaven, imposed little restraint upon them. Amid these dangerous shelves, which lay on every hand, the cautious and moderate character of James had steered a very prudent course. Opposing art to art and dissimulation to dissimulation, he had preserved an unusual tranquillity among his subjects, and, at the same time, had supported, as much as possible, his own authority. Many indignities he had borne with patience or with a very moderate resentment, while he remained in his native kingdom: But when he reached a state of greater splendor and independance, by mounting the throne of England, he was not altogether insensible of this great increase of authority; and he soon altered his maxims with regard to the administration of Scotland. Having experienced the mighty influence, which religion has over the minds of men, he was resolved, if possible, to acquire the direction of that principle, and to establish, in Scotland, the maxims, discipline, and worship of the English church, with which, as a prince, he had so great reason to be satisfied.

But 'tis an observation, suggested by all history, and by none more than by that of James, and his successor, that the religious spirit contains in it something supernatural and unaccountable; and that, in its operations upon society, effects correspond less to their known causes than is found in any other circumstance of government. A reflection, which may, at once, afford a source of blame against such sovereigns as lightly innovate in so dangerous an article, and of apology for such, as being engaged in an enterprize of that nature, are disappointed of the expected event, and fail in their undertakings.

The three points, which the King proposed to finish by his journey to Scotland, were, the enlarging episcopal authority, the establishing a few ceremonies in public worship,

and the fixing a superiority of the civil above the ecclesiastical jurisdiction.

When the Scotch nation were first seized with that fury of reformation, which was so pernicious during the time, and which has since proved so salutary in the consequences; the fanatical preachers, assuming to themselves a character, little inferior to the prophetic or apostolical, disdained all subjection to the spiritual rulers of the church, by whom their dangerous innovations were punished and opposed. The revenues of the dignified clergy, no longer considered as sacred, were either appropriated by the present possessors, or seized by the more powerful barons; and what remained, after mighty dilapidations, was, by act of parliament, annexed to the crown. The prelates, however, and abbots maintained their temporal jurisdictions and their seats in parliament; and, tho' laymen were sometimes graced with ecclesiastical titles, the church, notwithstanding its frequent protestations to the contrary, was still supposed to be represented by those spiritual lords, in the states of the kingdom. After many struggles, the King, even before his accession to the throne of England, had acquired influence sufficient over the Scotch clergy, to extort from them an acknowledgement of the parliamentary jurisdiction of bishops; tho' attended with many precautions, in order to secure themselves against the spiritual encroachments of that order.<sup>5</sup> When king of England, he engaged them, tho' still with great reluctance on their part, to advance a step farther, and to receive the bishops as perpetual presidents or moderators in their ecclesiastical synods; re-iterating their protestations against all spiritual jurisdiction of the prelates, and all controlling power over the presbyters.<sup>6</sup> And by such gradual innovations, the King flattered himself, that he would gently introduce the episcopal authority: But as his final scope was fully seen from the beginning, every new advance was a fresh occasion of discontent, and aggravated, instead of softening, the abhorrence, entertained against the prelacy.

What rendered the King's aim more apparent, were the

5. 1598. 6. 1606.

endeavors, which, at the same time, he used to introduce into Scotland some of the ceremonies of the church of England: The rest, it was easily foreseen, would soon follow. The fire of devotion, excited by novelty, and inflamed by opposition, had so possessed the minds of the Scotch reformers, that all rites and ornaments, and even order of worship, were disdainfully rejected as useless burthens; retarding the imagination in its rapturous extasies, and stinting the operations of that divine spirit, by which they supposed themselves to be animated. A mode of worship was established, the most naked and most simple imaginable; one that borrowed nothing from the senses; but reposed itself intirely on the contemplation of that divine essence, which discovers itself to the understanding only. This species of devotion, so suitable to the supreme Being, but so little suitable to human frailty, was observed to occasion the most enormous ravages in the breast, and to subvert every rational principle of conduct and behavior. The mind, straining for these extraordinary raptures, reaching them by short glances, succumbing again under its own weakness, rejecting all exterior aid of pomp and ceremony, was so occupied in this inward life, that it fled from every intercourse of society, and from every sweet or cheerful amusement, which could soften or humanize the character. It was obvious to all discerning eyes, and had not escaped the King's, that, by the prevalence of fanaticism, a gloomy and sullen disposition established itself among the people; a spirit, obstinate and dangerous; independent and disorderly; animated equally with a contempt of authority, and a hatred to every other mode of religion, particularly to the catholic. In order to mellow these humors, James endeavoured to infuse a small tincture of superstition into the national worship, and to introduce such rites and ceremonies as might, in some degree, occupy the mind, and please the senses, without departing too far from that simplicity, by which the reformation was distinguished. The finer arts too, tho' still rude in these northern kingdoms, were employed to adorn the churches; and the King's

chappel, in which an organ was erected, and some pictures and statues displayed, was proposed as a model to the rest of the nation. But music was grating to the prejudiced ears of the Scotch clergy; sculpture and painting appeared instruments of idolatry; the surplice was a rag of popery; and each motion or gesture, prescribed by the liturgy, was a step towards that spiritual Babylon, so much the object of their horror and aversion. Every thing was deemed impious, but their own mystical comments on the scriptures, which they idolized, and whose eastern prophetic style they employed in every common occurrence of life.

It will be sufficient to give an account of one or two of the ceremonies, which the King was so intent to establish. Such institutions, for a time, are esteemed, either too divine to have proceeded from any other being than the supreme Creator of the universe, or too diabolical to have been derived from other than an infernal demon. But no sooner is the mode or the controversy past, than they are universally discovered to be so frivolous as scarce to be mentioned with dignity or even decency, amidst the ordinary course of human transactions. On these occasions, history is sometimes constrained to depart a little from her native and accustomed gravity.

As episcopal ordination was still wanting to the Scotch bishops, who derived their character merely from votes of parliaments and assemblies; James had called up three of them to England.<sup>7</sup> By canonical ceremonies and by imposition of hands, they received from the English bishops that unknown, and therefore the more revered virtue, which, thro' innumerable prelates, had been supposed to be transmitted, without interruption, from the first disciples and apostles. And these three bishops were esteemed sufficient to preserve alive that virtue, to transport it into Scotland, and to transfer it, by their touch, to their brethren and successors in that kingdom.

Great controversies arose, even after every other dispute seemed to be adjusted, betwixt the King and the ministers,

about the manner of receiving the sacrament. The King still insisted, that the communicants should rest on their knees; and he regarded that posture as the most respectful, because the most uneasy: The ministers strenuously maintained the privilege of reposing on their seats, during the performance of that sacred rite, and would by no means submit to the posture prescribed to them.

Much difference likeways, and violent dispute took place, whether the sacramental bread should be cut into morsels before it was presented to the communicants, or whether they might themselves break it with their fingers. The King insisted vehemently on the former practice; the church adhered obstinately to the latter.

The other usages, recommended by James, regarded private communion, private baptism, confirmation of children, and the observance of Christmas and other festivals. These ceremonies, all except that of ordination, were afterwards known under the name of the articles of Perth, from the place where they were ratified by the assembly.

A conformity of discipline and worship betwixt the churches of England and Scotland, which was James's aim, he never could hope to establish, but by first procuring an acknowledgement of his own authority in all ecclesiastical causes; and nothing could be more contrary to the practice as well as principles of the presbyterian clergy. The ecclesiastical courts possessed the power of fulminating excommunication; and that dreadful sentence, beside the eternal and infinite punishments, to which it consigned the delinquent, was attended with immediate consequences of the most important nature. The person excommunicated was shunned by every one as profane and impious; and his whole estate, during his life-time, and all his moveables, for ever, were forfeited to the crown. Nor were the preparatory steps, requisite before inflicting this sentence, formal or regular, in proportion to the weight of it. Without accuser, without summons, without trial, any ecclesiastical court, however inferior, could, in a summary manner, pronounce a sentence of excommunication, for any cause, and against

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any person, even tho' he lived not within the bounds of their jurisdiction. And, by this means, the whole tyranny of the inquisition, tho' without its order, was introduced into the kingdom.

But the clergy contented not themselves with the unlimited jurisdiction, which they exercised in ecclesiastical matters: They assumed a censorial power over every part of administration; and, in all their sermons, and even prayers, mingling politics with religion, they inculcated the most seditious and most turbulent principles. Black, minister of St Andrews, went so far,<sup>8</sup> in a sermon, as to pronounce all kings the devil's children; he gave the Queen of England the appellation of atheist; he said, that the treachery of the King's heart was now fully discovered; and in his prayers for the Queen he used these words; *We must pray for her for the fashion's sake; but we have no cause: She will never do us any good.* When summoned before the privy council, he refused to answer to a civil court for any part of his sermons, even tho' the crime, of which he was accused, was of a civil nature. The church adopted his cause. They raised a sedition in Edinburgh.<sup>9</sup> The King, during some time, was in the hands of the enraged populace; and it was not without courage, as well as dexterity, that he was able to extricate himself. A few days afterwards, a minister, preaching in the principal church of that capital, said, that the King was possessed with a devil; and, that one devil being expelled, seven worse had entered in his place. To which he added, that the subjects might lawfully rise, and take the sword out of his hand. Not, even during the darkest night of papal superstition, are there found such instances of priestly encroachments, as the annals of Scotland present to us during that period.

By these extravagant stretches of power, and by the patient conduct of James, the church began to lose ground, even before the King's accession to the throne of England: But no sooner had that event taken place, than he made the Scotch clergy sensible, that he was sovereign

8. 1596. 9. 17th Dec. 1596.

of a great kingdom, which he governed with great authority. Tho' formerly he would have esteemed himself happy to have made a fair partition with them of the civil and ecclesiastical authority, he was now resolved to exert a supreme jurisdiction in church as well as state, and to put an end to their seditious practices. An assembly had been summoned at Aberdeen;<sup>10</sup> but, on account of his journey to London, he prorogued it to the year following. Some of the clergy, disavowing his ecclesiastical supremacy, met at the time first appointed, notwithstanding his prohibition. He threw them into prison. Such of them as submitted, and acknowledg'd their error, he pardoned. The rest he brought to their trial. They were condemned for high treason. He gave them their lives; but banished them the kingdom. Six of them suffered this penalty.

The general assembly was afterwards induced<sup>11</sup> to acknowlege the King's authority in summoning ecclesiastical courts, and to submit to the jurisdiction and visitation of the bishops. Even their favorite sentence of excommunication was declared invalid, unless confirmed by the ordinary. The King recommended to the presbyteries the members, whom they should elect to this assembly; and every thing was conducted in it with little appearance of choice and liberty.

By his own prerogative too, which he greatly stretched on this occasion, the King erected a court of high commission,<sup>12</sup> in imitation of that established in England. The bishops and a few of the clergy, who had been summoned together, willingly acknowledg'd this court; and it proceeded immediately upon business, as if its authority had been grounded on the full consent of the whole legislature.

But James reserved the final blow for the time when he should himself pay a visit to Scotland. To the parliament, which was then summoned, it was proposed to enact, that, 'whatever his Majesty should determine in the external government of the church, with the consent of the arch-

10. July 1604. 11. 6th of June 1610.

12. 15th of Feb. 1610.

bishops, bishops, and a competent number of the ministry, should have the force of a law.' What number should be esteemed competent was not determined: And their nomination was left intirely to the King: So that his ecclesiastical authority, had this act passed, would have been established in its full extent. Some of the clergy protested. They apprehended, they said, that the purity of their church, by means of the new authority, would be polluted with the whole rites and liturgy of the church of England. James, dreading clamor and opposition, dropped the act, which had already passed the lords of articles; and asserted, that the inherent prerogative of the crown contained more power than was recognized by this bill. Sometime after, he called a meeting, at St Andrews, of the bishops and thirty six of the most eminent clergy. He there declared his resolution of exerting his prerogative, and of establishing, by his own authority, the few ceremonies which he had recommended to them. They entreated him rather to call a general assembly, and to procure their consent. The King asking, *What assurance he might have of the assembly's consent;* they answered, That they saw no reason to the contrary, and knew that the assembly would yield to any reasonable demand of his Majesty. *But if it fall out otherways,* said the King, *and my demand be refused; my difficulty shall be the greater: And when I shall use my authority in establishing the ceremonies, they will call me tyrant and persecutor.* All crying out, that none could be so mad; *Yet experience,* said the King, *tells me, that it may readily happen. Therefore, unless I be made sure, I will not give way to an assembly.* Galloway, one of the ministers, saying, that the Archbishop of St Andrews would answer for them, the Archbishop refused: For that he had been deceived by them, and had sufficiently experienced their breach of promise. Then said Galloway, *If your Majesty will trust me, I will answer for them.* The King consented; and an assembly was summoned on the 25th of November next.

Yet this assembly, which met after his departure from Scotland, eluded all the King's applications; and it was not

till the subsequent year, that he was able to procure a vote for receiving his ceremonies. And thro' every step of this affair, in the parliament as well as in all the general assemblies, the nation betrayed the utmost reluctance to all these innovations; and nothing but the King's importunity and authority had extorted a seeming consent, which was belied by the inward sentiments of all ranks of people. Even the few, over whom religious prejudices were not prevalent, thought the national honor sacrificed by a servile imitation of the modes of worship, practised in England. And every prudent man agreed in condemning the measures of the King, who, by an ill-timed zeal for insignificant ceremonies, had betrayed, tho' in an opposite manner, equal narrowness of mind, with the persons, whom he treated with such contempt. It was judged, that, had not these dangerous humors been irritated by opposition; had they been allowed peaceably to evaporate; they might at last have subsided within the limits of law and civil authority. And as all fanatical religions naturally circumscribe, to very narrow bounds, the numbers and riches of the ecclesiastics; no sooner is their first fire spent, than they lose all credit over the people, and leave them under the natural and beneficent influence of their legal and moral obligations.

At the same time, that James shocked, in so violent a manner, the religious principles of his Scotch subjects, he acted in opposition to the bigotry of his English. He had observed, in his progress thro' England, that a judical observance of the sunday, chiefly by means of the puritans, was gaining, every day, ground thro'out the kingdom, and that the people, under pretext of religion, were, contrary to former practice, debarred from such sports and recreations, as contributed both to their health and their amusement. Festivals, which in all other nations and ages, are partly dedicated to public worship, partly to mirth and society, were here totally appropriated to the offices of religion, and served to nourish those sullen and gloomy contemplations, to which the people were, of themselves, so unfortunately subject. The King falsely concluded, that it would be easy

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to infuse cheerfulness into this dark spirit of devotion. He issued a proclamation to allow and encourage, after divine service, all kinds of lawful games and exercises; and by his authority, he endeavored to give sanction to a practice, which his prejudiced subjects regarded as the utmost profaneness and impiety.

## CHAP. IV

*Sir Walter Raleigh's expedition – His execution – Insurrections in Bohemia – Loss of the Palatinate – Negotiations with Spain – A parliament – Parties – Fall of Bacon – Rupture betwixt King and parliament – Protestation of the commons*

AT the time when Sir Walter Raleigh was first confined to the tower, his violent and haughty temper had rendered him the most unpopular man in England, and his condemnation was chiefly owing to that public odium, under which he labored. During the thirteen years imprisonment, which he suffered, the sentiments of the nation were much changed with regard to him. Men had leisure to reflect on the hardship, not to say, injustice of his sentence; they pitied his active and enterprizing spirit, which languished in the rigors of confinement; they were struck with the extensive genius of the man, who, being educated amidst naval and military enterprizes, had surpassed in the pursuits of literature, even those of the most recluse and sedentary lives; and they admired his unbroken magnanimity, which, at his age and under his circumstances, could engage him to undertake and execute so great a work as his history of the world. To increase these favorable dispositions, on which he built the hopes of his liberty, he spred the report of a golden mine, which he had discovered in Guiana, and which was sufficient, according to his representation, not only to inrich all the adventurers, but to afford immense treasures to the nation. The King, when informed of these mighty promises, gave little credit to them; both because he believed, that no such mine, as that described, was any where in nature, and because he considered Raleigh as a man of desperate fortunes, whose business it was, by any means, to procure his freedom, and to re-instate himself in credit and authority. Thinking, how-

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ever, that he had already undergone sufficient punishment, he released him from the tower; and when his vaunts of the golden mine had engaged multitudes to associate with him, the King gave him permission to try the adventure, and, at their desire, conferred on him authority over his fellow-adventurers. Tho' strongly solicited, he still refused to grant him a pardon, which seemed a natural consequence, when he was intrusted with power and command. But James declared himself still diffident of Raleigh's designs; and he intended, he said, to reserve the former sentence, as a check upon his future behavior:

Raleigh well knew, that it was far from the King's purpose to invade any of the Spanish settlements: He therefore firmly denied, that Spain had planted any colonies on that part of the coast, where his mine lay. When the ambassador of that nation, the famous Gondomar, alarmed at his preparations, carried complaints to the King; Raleigh still protested the innocence of his intentions: And James assured Gondomar, that he durst not form any hostile attempt, and that he should pay with his head for so audacious an enterprize. But the minister wisely concluding, that twelve armed vessels were not fitted out without some purpose of invasion, conveyed the intelligence to the court of Madrid, who immediately gave orders for arming and fortifying all their settlements, particularly those along the coast of Guiana.

When the courage and avarice of the Spaniards and Portuguese had discovered so many new worlds, they were resolved to shew themselves superior to the barbarous heathens, whom they invaded, not only in arts and arms, but also in the justice of the quarrel: They applied to Alexander VI who then filled the papal chair; and he generously bestowed on the Spaniards the whole western, and on the Portuguese the whole eastern part of the globe. The more scrupulous protestants, who acknowledged not the authority of the Roman pontiff, established the first discovery as the foundation of *their* title; and if a pyrate or sea-adventurer of their nation had but erected a stick or stone on the shore, as

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a memorial of his taking possession, they concluded the whole continent to belong to them, and thought themselves intitled to expel or exterminate, as usurpers, the antient possessors and inhabitants. It was in this manner, that Sir Walter Raleigh, about twenty-three years before, had acquired to the crown of England a just claim to the continent of Guiana, a region as large as the half of Europe; and tho' he had, immediately after, left the coast, he yet pretended, that the English title remained certain and indefeazable. But it had happened in the mean time, that the Spaniards, not knowing or not acknowledging, this claim, had taken possession of a part of Guiana, had formed a settlement on the river Oronooko, had built a little town called St Thomas, and were there working some mines of small value.

To this place, Raleigh directly bent his course; and remaining, himself, at the mouth of the river with five of the largest ships, he sent up the rest to St Thomas, under the command of his son, and of captain Keymis, a person intirely devoted to him. The Spaniards, who had expected this invasion, fired on the English at their landing, were repulsed, and pursued into the town. Young Raleigh, to incourage his men, called out, *That this was the true mine, and none but fools looked for any other;* and advancing upon the Spaniards, received a shot, of which he immediately expired. This dismayed not Keymis and the others. They carried on the attack, got possession of the town, which they afterwards set on fire; and found not in it any thing of considerable value.

Raleigh pretended not, that he had himself seen the mine, which he had engaged so many people to go in quest of: It was Keymis, he said, who had formerly discovered it, and had brought him that lump of ore, which promised such immense treasures. Yet Keymis, who owned, that he was within two hours march of the place, refused, under the most absurd pretexts, to take any effectual step towards the finding it; and he returned immediately to Raleigh, with the melancholy news of his son's death, and the ill success of the enterprize. Sensible to reproach, and

dreading punishment for his behavior, in despair Keymis retired into his cabbin, and put an end to his own life.

The other adventurers now concluded that they were deceived by Raleigh; that he never had known of any such mine as he pretended to go in search of; that his intention had ever been to plunder St Thomas; and having encouraged his company by the spoil of that place, to have thence proceeded to the invasion of the other Spanish settlements; that he expected to repair his ruined fortunes by such daring enterprizes; and that he trusted to the money he should acquire, for making his peace with England; or if that view failed him, that he proposed to retire into some other country, where his riches would secure his retreat.

The small acquisitions, gained by the spoil of St Thomas, discouraged Raleigh's companions from entering into these views; tho' there were many circumstances in the treaty betwixt the two nations, which invited them to engage in such a pyratical war with the Spaniards.

When England made peace with Spain, the example of Henry IV was imitated, who, at the treaty of Vervins, finding a difficulty in adjusting all questions with regard to the Indian trade, had agreed to pass over that article in total silence. The Spaniards, having, all along, published severe edicts against the intercourse of any European nation with their colonies, interpreted this silence in their own favor, and considered it as a tacit acquiescence of England in the established laws of Spain. The English, on the contrary, pretended, that, as they had never been excluded by any treaty from commerce with any part of the King of Spain's dominions, it was still as lawful for them to trade with his settlements in either Indies, as with his European territories. In consequence of this ambiguity, many adventurers from England sailed to the Spanish Indies, and met with severe punishment, when caught: as they, on the other hand, often stole, and, when superior in power, forced a trade with the inhabitants, and resisted, nay sometimes plundered, the Spanish governors. Violences of this nature, which had been

carried to a great height on both sides, it was agreed to bury in total oblivion; because of the difficulty, which was found, of remedying them, upon any fixed principles.

But as there appeared a great difference betwixt private adventurers in single ships, and a fleet acting under a royal commission; Raleigh's companions thought it safest to return immediately to England, and carry him along with them to answer for his conduct and behavior. 'Tis pretended, that he employed many artifices, first to engage them to attack the Spanish settlements, and failing of that, to make his escape into France: But all these proving unsuccessful, he was delivered into the King's hands, and strictly examined, as well as his fellow-adventurers, before the privy council. The council found no difficulty in pronouncing, that the former suspicions, with regard to Raleigh's intentions, had been well grounded, that he had abused the King in the representations which he had made of his projected adventure; that he had acted in an offensive and hostile manner against his Majesty's allies; and that he had wilfully burned and destroyed a town belonging to the King of Spain. He might have been tried either by common law for this violence, or by martial law for breach of orders: But it was an established principle among those of the long robe, that, as he lay under an actual attainder for high treason, he could not be brought to a new trial for any other crime. To satisfy, therefore, the court of Spain, who raised the loudest complaints against him, the King made use of that power which he had purposely reserved in his own hand, and signed the warrant for his execution upon the former sentence.<sup>1</sup>

Sir Walter Raleigh, finding his fate inevitable, collected

1. Some of the facts, in this narration, which seem to condemn Raleigh, are taken from the King's declaration, which being published by authority, when the facts were recent, being extracted from examinations before the privy council, and subscribed by six counsellors, among whom was Abbot Archbishop of Canterbury, a prelate no way complaisant to the court, must be allowed to have great weight. Yet the most material facts are confirmed either by the nature and reason of the thing, or by Sir Walter's own apology and his

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all his courage: And tho' he had formerly made use of many mean artifices, such as feigning madness, sickness, and a variety of diseases, in order to protract his examina-

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letters. The King's vindication is in the Harleyan miscellany, Vol. 3. No. 2.

1. There seems to be an improbability, that the Spaniards, who knew nothing of Raleigh's pretended mine, should have built a town, in so wide a coast within three miles of it. The chances are extremely against such a supposition: And it is more natural to think, that the view of plundering the town led him thither, than that of working a mine. 2. No such mine is there found to this day. 3. Raleigh in fact found no mine, and in fact he plundered and burned a Spanish town. Is it not more probable, therefore, that the latter was his intention? How can the secrets of his breast be rendered so visible as to counterpoise certain facts? 4. He confesses, in his letter to Lord Carew, that, tho' he knew it, yet he concealed from the King the settlement of the Spaniards, on that coast. Does not this fact alone render him sufficiently criminal? 5. His commission impowers him only to settle on a coast possessed by savage and barbarous inhabitants. Was it not the most criminal breach of orders to disembark on a coast possessed by Spaniards? 6. His orders to Keymis, when he sent him up the river, are contained in his own apology, and from them it appears, that he knew (what was unavoidable) that the Spaniards would resist, and would oppose the English landing and possession. His intentions, therefore, were hostile from the beginning. 7. Without provocation, and even when at a distance, he gave Keymis orders to dislodge the Spaniards from their own town. Could any enterprize be more hostile? And, considering the Spaniards as allies to the nation, could any enterprize be more criminal? Was he not the aggressor, even tho' it should be true that the Spaniards fired upon his men at landing? 'Tis said he killed three or four hundred of them. Is that so light a matter? 8. In his letter to the King, and in his apology, he grounds his defence on former hostilities exercised by the Spaniards against other companies of Englishmen. These are accounted for by the ambiguity of the treaty betwixt the nations. And 'tis plain, that tho' these might be reasons for the King's declaring war against that nation, they could never entitle Raleigh to declare war, and, without any commission, or contrary to his commission, to invade the Spanish settlements. He pretends indeed that peace was never made with Spain in the Indies: A most absurd notion! 9. If the claim to the property of that country as first discoverer, was good, in opposition to present settlement, as Raleigh pretends; why was it not laid before the King with all its circumstances, and submitted to his judgment? 10. Raleigh's force is acknowledged by himself to have been insufficient to support him in

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tion, and procure his escape; he now resolved to act his part with bravery and resolution. '*Tis a sharp remedy*, he said, *but a sure one for all ills*; when he felt the edge of the ax, by which he was to be beheaded. His harangue to the people

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possession against the power of which Spain was master on that coast, yet it was sufficient, as he owns, to take by surprize and plunder twenty towns. It was not therefore his design to settle, but to plunder. By these confessions, which I have here brought together, he plainly betrays himself. 11. Why did he not stay and work his mine, as at first he projected? He apprehended that the Spaniards would be upon him with a greater force. But before he left England, he knew, that this must be the case, if he invaded any part of the Spanish colonies. His intention therefore never was to settle, but only to plunder. 12. He acknowledges, that he knew neither of the depth nor quantity of the mine, but only that there was some ore there. Would he have ventured all his fortune and credit on so precarious a foundation. 13. Would the other adventurers, if made acquainted with this, have risqued every thing to attend him? Ought a fleet to have been equipped for an experiment? Was there not plainly an imposture in the management of this affair? 14. He says to Keymis, in his orders, Bring but a basket or two of ore, and it will satisfy the King, that my project was not imaginary. This was easily done from the Spanish mines; and he seems to have been chiefly displeased at Keymis for not attempting it. Such a view was a premeditated apology to cover his cheat. 15. The King in his declaration imputes it to Raleigh, that as soon as he was at sea, he immediately fell into such uncertain and doubtful talk of his mine, and said, that it would be sufficient if he brought home a basketful of ore. From the circumstances last mentioned, it appears, that this imputation was not without reason. 16. There are many other circumstances of great weight in the King's declaration, that Raleigh, when he fell down to Plymouth, took no pioneers along with him, which he always declared to be his intention; that he was no-way provided of instruments for working a mine, but had a sufficient stock of warlike stores; that young Raleigh, in attacking the Spaniards, employed the words, which, in the narration, I have put into his mouth; that the mine was moveable, and shifted as he saw convenient: Not to mention many other public facts which prove him to be highly criminal against his companions as well as his country. 17. Raleigh's account of his first voyage to Guiana proves him to have been a man capable of the most extravagant credulity or most impudent imposture: So ridiculous are the stories which he tells of the Inca's chimerical empire in the midst of Guiana; the rich city of el Dorado, or Manao, two day's journey in length, and shining with gold and silver; the

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was calm and eloquent; and he endeavored to revenge himself, and to load his enemies with the public hatred, by strong asseverations of facts, which, to say the least, may be esteemed very doubtful. With the utmost indifference, he laid his head upon the block, and received the fatal blow. And in his death, there appeared the same great, but ill-regulated mind, which, during his life, had displayed itself in all his conduct and behavior.

No measure of James's reign was attended with more pub-

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old Peruvian prophecies in favor of the English, who, he says, were expressly named as the deliverers of that country, long before any European had ever touched there; the Amazons or republic of women; and in general, the vast and incredible riches, which he saw on that continent, where no body has yet found any treasures. This whole narration is a proof, that he was extremely defective either in solid understanding, or morals, or both. No man's character indeed seems ever to have been carried to such extremes as Raleigh's, by the opposite passions of envy and pity. In the former part of his life, when he was active and lived in the world, and was probably best known, he was the object of universal horror and detestation thro'out England; in the latter part, when shut up in prison, he became, much more unreasonably, the object of great love and admiration.

As to the circumstances of the narration, that Raleigh's pardon was refused him, that his former sentence was purposely kept in force against him, and that he went out under these express conditions, they may be supported by the following authorities, 1. The King's word and that of six privy counsellors, who affirm it for fact. 2. The nature of the thing. If no suspicion had been entertained of his intentions, a pardon would never have been refused to a man to whom authority was entrusted. 3. The words of the commission itself, where he is simply stiled Sir Walter Raleigh, and not *faithful and well-beloved*, according to the usual and never failing stile on such occasions. 4. In all the letters, which he wrote home to Sir Ralph Winwood and to his wife, he always considers himself as a person unpardoned, and liable to the law. He seems indeed, immediately upon the failure of his enterprise, to have become desperate, and to have expected the fate which he met with.

'Tis pretended, that the King gave intelligence to the Spaniards of Raleigh's project; as if he had needed to lay a plot for the destroying a man, whose life had been fourteen years, and still was, in his power. The Spaniards wanted no other intelligence to be on their guard but the known and public fact of Raleigh's armament. And there was no reason why the King should conceal from them the

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lic dissatisfaction than the punishment of Sir Walter Raleigh. To execute a sentence, which was originally so hard, which had been so long suspended, and which seemed to have been tacitely pardoned by conferring on him a new trust and commission, was esteemed an instance of the utmost cruelty and injustice. To sacrifice, to a concealed enemy of England, the life of the only man in the nation, who had a high reputation for valor and military experience, was deemed the greatest meanness and indiscretion. And the great connections, which the King was now entering into with Spain, being universally distasteful, rendered this instance of his complaisance still more odious and unpopular.

James had entertained an opinion, which was peculiar to himself, and which had been adopted by none of his predecessors, that any alliance, below that of a king, was un-

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project of a settlement, which Raleigh pretended, and the King believed to be entirely innocent.

The King's chief blame seems to have lain in his negligence, in allowing Raleigh to depart without a more exact scrutiny: But for this he apologizes, by saying, that sureties were required for the good behavior of Raleigh and all his associates in the enterprize; but that they gave in bonds for one another: A cheat which was not perceived till they had failed, and which increased the suspicion of bad intentions.

Perhaps the King ought also to have granted Raleigh a pardon for his old treason, and to have tried him anew for his new offences. His punishment in that case would not only have been just, but conducted in a just and unexceptionable manner. But we are told that a ridiculous opinion at that time prevailed in the nation, (and it is plainly supposed by Sir Walter in his apology) that, by the treaty, war was allowed with the Spaniards in the Indies, tho' peace was made in Europe. And while that notion took place, no jury would have found Raleigh guilty. So that had not the King punished him upon his old sentence, the Spaniards would have had a most just cause of complaint against the King sufficient to have produced a war, at least to have destroyed all cordiality, betwixt the nations.

This explication I thought necessary in order to clear up the story of Raleigh; which, tho' very obvious, is generally mistaken, in so gross a manner, that I know not its parallel in the whole English history.

worthy a prince of Wales; and he never would allow other than a daughter of France or Spain, to be mentioned as a match for his son. This instance of pride, which really implied meanness, as if he could receive honor from any alliance, was so well known, that Spain had founded on it the hopes of governing, in the most important transactions, this monarch, so little celebrated for politics or prudence. During the life of Henry, the King of Spain had dropped some hints of bestowing on that Prince his eldest daughter, whom he afterwards disposed of to the young King of France, Lewis XIII. At that time, the view of the Spaniard was to engage James into a neutrality with regard to the succession of Cleves, which was disputed betwixt the protestant and popist line: But the bait did not then take; and James, in consequence of his alliance with the Dutch, and Henry IV of France, marched<sup>2</sup> 4000 men, under the command of Sir Edward Cecil, who joined these two powers, and put the Marquis of Brandenburgh and the Palatine of Newbourg, in possession of that duchy.

Gondomar was, at this time, the Spanish ambassador in England; a man, whose flattery was the more artful, because covered with the appearance of frankness and sincerity; whose politics were the more dangerous, because disguised under the masque of mirth and pleasantry. He now made offer of the second daughter of Spain to Prince Charles; and, that he might render the temptation irresistible to the necessitous monarch, he gave hopes of an immense fortune, which should attend the Princess. The court of Spain, tho' determined to contract no alliance with a heretic, entered into negotiations with James, which they artfully protracted, and, amid every disappointment, still redoubled his hopes of success. The transactions in Germany, so important to the Austrian greatness, became, every day, a new motive for this duplicity of conduct.

In that great revolution of manners, which happened during the sixteenth and the seventeenth centuries, the only nations, who had the honorable, tho' often melancholy

advantage, of making an effort for their expiring privileges, were such as, along with the principles of civil liberty, were animated with a zeal for religious parties and opinions. Beside the irresistible force of mercenary armies, the European princes possessed this advantage, that they were descended from the antient royal families; that they continued the same names of magistrates, the same appearance of civil government; and restraining themselves by all the forms of legal administration, could insensibly impose the yoke on their unguarded subjects. Even the German nations, who formerly broke the Roman chains, and restored liberty to mankind, now lost their own liberty, and saw with grief the absolute authority of their princes firmly established amongst them. In their circumstances, nothing but a pious fanaticism, which disregards all motives of human prudence, could have made them entertain hopes of preserving any longer those privileges, which their ancestors, thro' so many ages, had transmitted to them.

As the house of Austria, thro'out all their extensive dominions, had ever made religion the pretext of their usurpations, they now met with resistance from a like principle; and the catholic superstition, as usual, had ranged itself on the side of monarchy; the protestant enthusiasm, on that of liberty. The states of Bohemia, having taken arms against the Emperor Mathias, continued their revolt against his successor Ferdinand, and claimed the observance of all the edicts enacted in favor of the new religion, along with the restoration of their antient laws and constitution. The surrounding principalities, Silesia, Moravia, Lusatia, Austria, even the kingdom of Hungary, took part in the quarrel; and thro'out all these populous and martial provinces, the spirit of discord and civil war had universally diffused itself.

Ferdinand II who possessed more vigor and ability, tho' not more lenity and moderation, than are usual with the Austrian princes, strongly armed himself for the recovery of his authority; and beside the assistance of his subjects, who professed the antient religion, he engaged on his side a

powerful alliance of the neighboring potentates. All the catholic princes of the empire had embraced his defence; even Saxony, the most powerful of the protestant: Poland had declared itself in his favor; and, above all, the Spanish monarch, esteeming his own interest intimately connected with that of the younger branch of his family, prepared powerful succors from Italy, from the low countries; and he opened his Indian treasures for the support of Ferdinand and of the catholic religion.

The states of Bohemia, alarmed with these mighty preparations, began also to sollicit foreign assistance; and, along with that support, which they obtained from the evangelical union in Germany, they endeavoured to establish connexions with greater princes. They cast their eyes on Frederic, Elector Palatine. They considered, that, beside the power of his own state, which was great, he was son-in-law to the King of England, and nephew to Prince Maurice, whose authority was become almost absolute in the united provinces. They hoped, that these princes, moved by the connections of blood, as well as by the tie of their common religion, would interest themselves in all the fortunes of Frederic, and would promote his greatness. They therefore made him a tender of their crown, which they considered as elective; and the young Palatine, stimulated by ambition, without consulting either with James or Maurice, whose repugnance he foresaw, immediately accepted the offer, and marched all his forces into Bohemia, in support of his new subjects.

The news of these events no sooner reached England than the whole kingdom was on fire to engage in the quarrel. Scarce was the ardor greater, with which all the states of Europe, in former ages, flew to rescue the holy land from the dominion of infidels. The nation, at that time, were sincerely attached to the blood of their monarch, and considered their connection with the Palatine, who had married a daughter of England, as very close and intimate. And, when they heard of catholics carrying on wars and persecutions against protestants, they thought their own interest

most deeply concerned, and regarded their neutrality as a base desertion of the cause of God, and of his holy religion. In such a quarrel, they would gladly have marched to the opposite extremity of Europe, have plunged themselves into a chaos of German politics, and have expended all the blood and treasure of the nation, by maintaining a contest with the whole house of Austria, at the very time, and in the very place, where it was the most potent, and almost irresistible.

But James, beside that he had too little enterprize for such vast undertakings, was restrained by another motive, which had a mighty influence upon him. He refused to patronize the revolt of subjects against their sovereign. From the very first he denied to his son-in-law, the title of the King of Bohemia: He forbade him to be prayed for in the churches under that appellation: And tho' he owned, that he had noway, examined the pretensions, privileges, and constitution of the revolted states; so exalted was his idea of the rights of kings, that he concluded subjects must ever be in the wrong, when they stood in opposition to those, who had acquired or assumed that majestic title. Thus, even in measures, founded on true politics, James intermixed so many narrow prejudices, as lost him all his authority, and exposed him to the imputation of weakness and of error.

Mean while, affairs every where hastened to a crisis. Ferdinand levied a mighty force under the command of the Duke of Bavaria and the Count of Bucquoy; and advanced upon his enemy in Bohemia. In the low countries, Spinola collected a veteran army of thirty thousand men. When Edmonds, the King's resident at Brussels, made remonstrances to the Archduke Albert, he was answered, that the orders for this armament had been transmitted to Spinola from Madrid, and that he alone knew the secret intentions of it. Spinola again told the minister, that his orders were still sealed; and that, if Edmonds would accompany him in his march to Coblenz, he would there open them, and give

him full satisfaction. It was more easy to see his intention, than to prevent its success. Almost at one time, it was known in England, that Frederic, being defeated in the great and decisive battle of Prague, had fled with his family into Holland, and that Spinola had fallen upon the Palatinate, and, meeting with no resistance, except from some princes of the union, and from an English regiment of 2,400 men, commanded by the brave Sir Horace Vere, had, in a little time, made himself master of the greatest part of that principality.

High were now the murmurs and complaints against the King's neutrality and unactive-disposition. The happiness and tranquillity of their own country became distasteful to the English, when they reflected on the oppressions and distresses of their protestant brethren in Germany. They considered not, that their interposal in the wars of the continent, tho' agreeable to religious zeal, could not, at that time, be justified by any sound maxims of politics; that, however exorbitant the Austrian greatness, the danger was still too distant to give any just alarms to England; that mighty resistance would yet be made by so many potent and warlike nations in Germany, 'ere they would yield their neck to the yoke; that France, now engaged by bigotry to contract a double alliance with the Austrian family, must necessarily be soon rouzed from her lethargy, and oppose the progress of so hated a rival; that in the farther advance of conquests, even the interest of the two branches of that ambitious family must interfere, and engender mutual jealousy and opposition; that a land-war, carried on at such a distance, would waste the blood and treasure of the English nation, without any hopes of success; that a sea-war, indeed, might be both safe and successful against Spain, but would not affect the enemy in such vital parts as to make them stop their career of success in Germany, and abandon all their acquisitions; and that the prospect of recovering the Palatinate being at present desperate, the affair was reduced to this simple question, whether peace and commerce with Spain, or the uncertain hopes of plunder and of con-

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quests in the Indies were preferable; a question, which, at the beginning of the King's reign, had already been decided, and perhaps with reason, in favor of the former advantages.

James might have defended his pacific measures by such plausible arguments: But these seem not to have been altogether the motives, which swayed him. He had entertained the Utopian notion, that, as his own justice and moderation had shone out so conspicuously thro' all these transactions, the whole house of Austria, tho' not awed by the power of England, would willingly, from mere respect to his virtue, submit themselves to so equitable an arbitration. He flattered himself with hopes, that, after he had formed an intimate connection with the Spanish monarch, by means of his son's marriage, the restitution of the Palatinate might be procured, from the motive alone of friendship and personal regard. He perceived not, that this unactive virtue, the more it was extolled, the greater ridicule was it exposed to. He was not sensible, that the Spanish match was itself attended with such difficulties, that all his art of negotiation would scarce be able to surmount them; much less, that that match could in good politics be depended on, as the means of procuring such extraordinary advantages. His unwarlike disposition, increased by age, rivetted him still faster in his errors, and determined him to seek the restoration of his son-in-law, by remonstrances and entreaties, by arguments and embassies, rather than by blood and violence. And the same defect of courage, which held him in awe of foreign nations, made him likeways afraid of shocking the prejudices of his own subjects, and kept him from openly avowing the measures, which he was determined to pursue. Or perhaps, he hoped to turn their prejudices to account; and, by their means, engage his people to furnish him with supplies, of which their excessive frugality had hitherto made them so sparing and reserved.

He first tried the expedient of a benevolence or free-gift from individuals, pretending the urgency of the case, which would not allow leisure for any other measure: But the

jealousy of liberty was now rouzed, and the nation regarded these pretended benevolences, as real violences, contrary to law and pernicious to freedom, however authorized by obsolete precedents. A parliament was found to be the only resource, which could furnish any large supplies; and writs were accordingly issued for summoning that great council of the nation.

This parliament is remarkable for being the epoch, in which were first regularly formed, tho' without acquiring these denominations, the parties of **COURT** and **COUNTRY**; parties, which have ever since continued, and which, while they often threaten the total dissolution of the government, are the real causes of its permanent life and vigor. In the antient Gothic constitution, of which the English partook with other European nations, there was a mixture, not of authority and liberty, which we have since enjoyed in this island, and which now subsist uniformly together; but of authority and anarchy, which perpetually shocked with each other, and which took place alternately, according as circumstances were more or less favorable to either of them. A parliament, composed of barbarians, summoned from their fields and forrests, uninstructed by study, conversation, or travel; ignorant of their own laws and history, and unacquainted with the situation of all foreign nations; a parliament called precariously by the king, and dissolved at his pleasure; sitting a few days, debating a few points prepared for them, and whose members were impatient to return to their own castles, where alone they were great, and to the chace, which was their favorite amusement: Such a parliament was very little fitted to enter into a discussion of all the questions of government, and to share, in a regular manner, the legal administration. The name, the authority of the king alone appeared, in the common course of government; in extraordinary emergencies, he assumed, with still better reason, the sole direction; the imperfect and unformed laws left, in every thing, a latitude of interpretation; and when the ends, pursued by the monarch, were, in

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general, agreeable to his subjects, little scruple or jealousy was entertained, with regard to the regularity of the means. During the reign of an able, fortunate, or popular prince, no member of either house, much less of the lower, durst think of entering into a formed party, in opposition to the court; since the dissolution of the parliament must, in few days, leave him unprotected, to the vengeance of his sovereign, and to those stretches of prerogative, which were then so easily made, in order to punish an obnoxious subject. During an unpopular and weak reign, the current commonly run so strong against the monarch, that none durst inlist themselves in the court-party; or if the prince was able to ingage any considerable barons on his side, the question was decided with arms in the field, not by debates or arguments in a senate or assembly. And upon the whole, the chief circumstance, which, during antient times, retained the prince in any legal form of administration, was, that the sword, by the nature of the feudal tenures, remained still in the hands of his subjects; and this irregular and dangerous check had much more influence than the regular and methodical limits of the laws and constitution. As the nation could not be compelled, it was requisite, that every public measure of consequence, particularly that of levying new taxes, should seem to be adopted by common consent and approbation.

The princes of the house of Tudor, partly by the vigor of their administration, partly by the concurrence of favorable circumstances, had been able to establish a more regular system of government; but they drew the constitution so near to despotism as diminished extremely the authority of the parliament. That senate became, in a great degree, the organ of royal will and pleasure: Opposition would have been regarded as a species of rebellion: And even religion, the most dangerous article, in which innovations could be introduced, had admitted, in the course of a few years, four several alterations, from the authority alone of the sovereign. The parliament was not then the road to honor and preferment: The talents of popular intrigue and elo-

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quence were uncultivated and unknown: And tho' that assembly still preserved authority, and retained the privilege of making laws and bestowing public money, the members acquired not, upon that account, either with prince or people much more weight and consideration. What powers were requisite for conducting the machine of government, the king was accustomed, of himself, to assume. His own revenues supplied him with money sufficient for his ordinary expences. And when extraordinary emergencies occurred, the prince needed not sollicite votes in parliament, either for the making laws or imposing taxes, both which were now become requisite for public interest and preservation.

The security of individuals, so requisite to the liberty of popular councils, was totally unknown in that age. And as no despotic princes, scarce even the eastern tyrants, rule intirely without the concurrence of some assemblies, which supply both advice and authority; little, but a mercenary force, seems then to have been wanting towards the establishment of a simple monarchy in England. The militia, tho' more favorable to regal authority, than the feudal institutions, was much inferior, in this respect, to disciplined armies; and if it did not preserve liberty to the people, it preserved, at least, the power, if ever the inclination should arise, of recovering it.

But so low, at that time, ran the inclination towards liberty, that Elizabeth, the last of that arbitrary line, herself no less arbitrary, was yet the most renowned and most popular of all the princes, who had ever filled the throne of England. It was natural for James to take the government as he found it, and to pursue her measures, which he heard so much applauded; nor did his penetration extend so far as to discover, that neither his circumstances nor his character could support so extensive an authority. His narrow revenues and little frugality began now to render him dependent on his people, even in the ordinary course of administration: Their increasing knowledge discovered to them that advantage, which they had obtained; and made them sensible of the inestimable value of civil liberty. And

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as he possessed too little dignity to command respect, and too much goodness to impress fear, a new spirit discovered itself every day in the parliaments; and a party, jealous of a free constitution, was regularly formed in the house of commons.

But notwithstanding these advantages, acquired to liberty; so extensive was royal authority, and so firmly established in all parts, that 'tis probable the patriots of that age would have despaired of ever resisting it, had they not been stimulated by religious motives, which inspire a courage, unsurmountable by any human obstacle.

The same alliance, which has ever prevailed betwixt kingly power and ecclesiastical authority, was now fully established in England; and while the prince assisted the clergy in supressing schismatics and innovators, the clergy, in return, inculcated the doctrine of an unreserved submission and obedience to the civil magistrate. The genius of the church of England, so kindly to monarchy, forwarded the confederacy; its submission to episcopal jurisdiction; its attachment to ceremonies, to order, and to a decent pomp and splendour of worship; and in a word, its affinity to the same superstition of the catholics, rather than to the wild fanaticism of the puritans.

On the other hand, opposition to the church, and the persecutions under which they labored, were sufficient to throw the puritans into the country party, and to engender political principles little favorable to the high pretensions of the sovereign. The spirit too of enthusiasm; bold, daring, and uncontroled; strongly disposed their minds to adopt republican tenets; and inclined them to arrogate, in their actions and conduct, the same liberty, which they assumed, in their rapturous flights and extasies. Ever since the first origin of that sect, thro' the whole reign of Elizabeth as well as of James, *puritanical* principles had been understood in a double sense, and expressed the opinions favorable both to political and to ecclesiastical liberty. And as the court, in order to discredit all parliamentary opposition, affixed the denomination of puritans to its antagonists; the

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religious puritans willingly adopted this idea, which was so advantageous to them; and confounded their cause with that of the patriots or country party. Thus were the civil and ecclesiastical factions regularly formed; and the humor of the nation, during that age, running strongly towards fanatical extravagancies, the spirit of civil liberty gradually revived from its lethargy, and by means of its religious associate, from which it reaped so much advantage and so little honor, it secretly enlarged its dominion, over the greatest part of the kingdom.

In this parliament, however, it must be owned, there appeared, at first, nothing but duty and submission on the part of the commons; and they seemed determined to sacrifice every thing, in order to maintain a good correspondence with their prince. They would allow no mention to be made of the new customs or impositions, which had been so eagerly disputed in the former parliament: The imprisonment of the members of that parliament was here, by some, complained of; but, by the authority of the graver and more prudent part of the house, that grievance was buried in oblivion: And being informed, that the King had remitted very considerable sums to the Palatine, they voted him two subsidies; and that too, at the very beginning of the session, contrary to the usual maxims of their predecessors.

Afterwards, they proceeded, but in a very temperate manner, to the examination of grievances. They found, that patents had been granted to Sir Giles Mompesson and Sir Francis Michel, for the licencing inns and ale-houses; that great summs of money had been levied, under pretext of these licences; and that such innkeepers as presumed to continue their business, without satisfying the rapacity of the patentees, had been severely punished by fines, imprisonments, and other vexations.

The same persons had also procured a patent, which they shared with Sir Edward Villiers, brother to Buckingham, for the sole making of gold and silver thread and lace, and had obtained very extraordinary powers for preventing any concurrence in these manufactures: They were armed

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with authority to search for all goods, which might interfere with their patent; and even to punish, at their own will and discretion, the makers, importers, and venders of such commodities. Many had grievously suffered by this exorbitant jurisdiction; and the lace, which had been manufactured by the patentees, was found universally to be adulterated, and composed more of copper than of the precious metals.

These grievances the commons represented to the King; and they met with a very gracious and very cordial reception. He seemed even thankful for the information given him; and declared himself ashamed, that such abuses, unknowingly to him, had crept into his administration. 'I assure you,' said he, 'had I before heard these things complained of, I would have done the office of a just king, and out of parliament have punished them, as severely, and peradventure more, than ye now intend to do'. A sentence was past on Michel, and Mompesson. It was executed on the former. The latter broke prison and escaped. Villiers was, at that time, sent purposely on a foreign employment; and his guilt being less enormous or less apparent than that of the others, he was easily protected by the credit of his brother, Buckingham.

Encouraged by this success, the commons carried their scrutiny, and still with a respectful hand, into abuses of a nature yet more important. The seals were, at that time, in the keeping of the celebrated Bacon, created Viscount St Albans; a man universally admired for the greatness of his genius, and beloved for the courteousness and humanity of his behavior. He was the great ornament of his age and nation; and nought was wanting to render him the ornament of human nature itself, but that strength of mind, which might check his intemperate desire of preferment, that could add nothing to his dignity, and restrain his profuse inclination to expence, that could be requisite neither for his honor nor entertainment. His want of oeconomy and his indulgence to servants had involved him in necessities; and, in order to supply his prodigality, he had been

tempted to take bribes, and that in a very open manner, from suitors in chancery. 'Tis pretended, that, notwithstanding this enormous abuse, he had still, in the seat of justice, preserved the integrity of a judge, and had given just decrees against those very persons, from whom he had received the wages of iniquity. Complaints rose the louder on that account, and at last reached the house of commons, who sent up an impeachment against him to the peers. The chancellor, conscious of guilt, deprecated the vengeance of his judges, and endeavored, by a general avowal, to escape the confusion of a stricter inquiry. The lords insisted on a particular confession of all his corruptions. He acknowledged twenty-eight articles;<sup>3</sup> and was sentenced to pay a fine of 40,000 pounds, to be imprisoned in the tower during the King's pleasure, to be for ever incapable of any office, place, or employment; and never again to sit in parliament, or come within the verge of the court.

This dreadful sentence, dreadful to a man of nice sensibility to honor, he survived five years; and being released, in a little time, from the tower, his genius, yet unbroken, supported itself amidst involved circumstances and a depressed spirit, and shone out in literary productions, which have made his guilt or weaknesses be forgotten or overlooked by posterity. In consideration of his great merit, the King remitted his fine, as well as all other parts of his sentence, conferred on him a large pension of 1,800 pound a-year, and employed every expedient to alleviate the weight of his age and misfortunes. And that great philosopher, at last, acknowledged with regret, that he had too long neglected the true ambition of a fine genius; and by plunging into

3. One of them is to this purpose. The vintners in London refused to give above a certain price for wines. The merchants complained to the council. The King made a reference to the chancellor. He ordered the vintners to give the price demanded by the merchants, and imprisoned two or three of the most obstinate, till they complied. For his pains, he received a present of 1000 pound from the merchants. It may seem to us remarkable, that he was not accused for arbitrary proceedings, but for corruption. State trials vol. v. p. 44. first edit.

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business and affairs, which require much less capacity, but greater firmness of mind, than the pursuits of learning, had exposed himself to such grievous calamities.

The commons had entertained the idea, that they were the great patrons of the people, and that the redress of all grievances must proceed from them; and to this principle they were chiefly beholden for the regard and consideration of the public. In the execution of this office, they now kept their ears open to complaints of every kind; and they carried their researches into many grievances, which, tho' of no great importance, could not be touched, without sensibly affecting the King and his ministers. The prerogative seemed, each moment, to be invaded; the King's authority, in every article, was disputed; and James, who was willing to correct the abuses of his power, could not submit to have the power itself questioned and denied. After the house, therefore, had sat near six months, and had, as yet, brought no considerable business to a full conclusion, the King resolved, under pretext of the advanced season, to interrupt their proceedings; and he sent them word, that he was determined, in a very little time, to adjourn them till next winter. The commons made application to the lords, and desired them to join in a petition for delaying the adjournment; which was refused by the upper house. The King regarded this project of a joint petition as an attempt to force him from his measures: He thanked the peers for their refusal to concur in it, and told them, that, if it was their desire, he would delay the adjournment, but would not so far comply with the request of the lower house. And thus, in these great national affairs, the same peevishness, which, in private altercations, often raises a quarrel from the smallest beginnings, produced a mutual coldness and disgust betwixt the King and the commons.

During the recess of parliament, the King used every measure to render himself popular with the nation, and to appease the rising ill humor of their representatives. To the parliament he had offered to circumscribe his own prerogative, and to abrogate his power of granting all mono-

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polies for the future. He now recalled all the patents of that kind, and redressed every article of grievance, to the number of thirty-seven, which had ever been complained of in the house of commons. But he gained not the end, which he proposed. The disgust, which had appeared at parting, could not so suddenly be dispelled. He had likeways been so imprudent as to commit to prison Sir Edwin Sandys, and Mr Selden, without any known cause, besides their activity and vigor, in discharging their duty as members of parliament. And above all, the transactions in Germany were sufficient, when joined to the King's cautions, negotiations, and delays, to inflame that jealousy of honor and religion, which prevailed thro'out the nation. This summer, the ban of the empire was published against the Elector Palatine; and the execution of it was committed to the Duke of Bavaria. The upper Palatinate was, in a little time, conquered by that prince, and measures were taken in the empire for bestowing on him the electoral dignity, of which the Palatine was despoiled. Frederic now lived with his numerous family, in great poverty and distress, either in Holland, or at Sedan with his uncle the Duke of Boüillon. And thro'out all the new conquests, in both the Palatinates as well as in Bohemia, Austria, Lusatia; and progress of the Austrian arms was marked with rigors and severities, exercised against the professors of the reformed religion.

The pious zeal of the commons immediately moved them, upon their assembling, to take all these transactions into consideration. They framed a remonstrance, which they intended to carry to the King. They represented, that the enormous growth of the Austrian power threatened the liberties of all Europe; that the progress of the catholic religion in England bred the most melancholy apprehensions, lest it should again acquire an ascendant in the kingdom; that the indulgence of his Majesty towards the professors of that religion had encouraged their insolence and temerity; that the uncontrololed conquests, made by the Austrian family in Germany, raised mighty expectations in the English papists; but above all, that the prospect of the

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Spanish match elevated them so far as to hope for an intire toleration, if not a final re-establishment of their religion. The commons, therefore, entreated his Majesty, that he would immediately undertake the defence of the Palatine, and maintain it by force of arms; that he would turn the point of his sword against Spain, whose armies and treasures were the chief support of the catholic interest in Europe; that he would enter into no negotiation for the marriage of his son but with a protestant princess; that the children of popish recusants should be taken from their parents, and committed to the care of protestant teachers and schoolmasters; and that the fines and confiscations, to which the catholics were by law liable, should be levied with the utmost severity.

By this *bold* step, unprecedented in England for many years, and unheard of in peaceable times, the commons attacked at once all the King's favorite maxims of government; his cautious and pacific measures, his lenity towards the Romish religion, and his attachment to the Spanish alliance, from which he promised himself such mighty advantages. But what most disgusted him was, their seeming invasion of his prerogative, and their pretending, under color of advice, to direct his conduct in such transactions, as had ever been acknowledged to belong solely to the management and direction of the monarch. He was, at that time, absent at Newmarket; but so soon as he heard of the intended remonstrance of the commons, he wrote a letter to the speaker, where he sharply reproved the house for debating openly of matters far above their reach and capacity, and he strictly forbad them to meddle with any thing, that regarded his government or deep matters of state, and especially not to touch his son's marriage with the daughter of Spain, nor to attack the honor of that King or of any other his friends and confederates. In order the more to terrify them, he mentioned the imprisonment of Sir Edwin Sandys; and tho' he denied, that the confinement of that member had been owing to any offence committed in the house, he yet plainly told them, that he thought him-

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self fully intitled to punish every misdemeanor in parliament, as well during its sitting as after its dissolution; and that he intended thenceforward to chastize any man, whose insolent behavior there should minister occasion of offence.

This *violent* letter, in which the King may be thought not to have acted altogether on the defensive, had the effect, which might naturally have been expected from it: The commons were enflamed, not terrified. Conscious of their own popularity, and of the bent of the nation towards a war with the catholics abroad, and the persecution of popery at home, they little dreaded the menaces of a prince, who was unsupported by military force, and whose gentle temper would, of itself, so soon disarm his severity. In a new remonstrance, therefore, they still insisted on their former remonstrance and advice; and they maintained, tho' in respectful terms, that they were intitled to interpose with their council in all matters of government; that it was their antient and undoubted right, and an inheritance transmitted to them from their ancestors, to possess intire freedom of speech in their debates of public business; and that, if any member abused this liberty, it belonged to the house alone, who were witnesses of his offence, to inflict a proper censure upon him.

So *vigorous* an answer was no way calculated to appease the King. 'Tis said, when the approach of the committee, who were to present it, was notified to him, he ordered twelve chairs to be brought: For that there were so many kings a coming. His answer was prompt and sharp. He told the house, than their remonstrance was more like a denunciation of war than an address of dutiful subjects; that their pretension to inquire into all state-affairs, without exception, was such a plenipotence as none of their ancestors, even during the reign of the weakest princes, had ever pretended to; that public transactions depended on a complication of views and intelligence, with which they were intirely unacquainted; that they could not better show their wisdom, as well as duty, than by keeping within their proper sphere;<sup>4</sup>

4. *Ne sutor ultra crepidam.*

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and that in any business, which depended on his prerogative, they had no title to interpose with their advice, except when he was pleased to desire it. And he concluded with these memorable words; *And tho' we cannot allow of your stile, in mentioning your antient and undoubted right and inheritance, but would rather have wished, that ye had said, that your privileges were derived from the grace and permission of our ancestors and us (for most of them grew from precedents, which shows rather a toleration than inheritance); yet we are pleased to give your our royal assurance, that as long as you contain yourselves within the limits of your duty, we will be as careful to maintain and preserve your lawful liberties and privileges as ever any of our predecessors were, nay, as to preserve our own royal prerogative.*

This open pretension of the King deservedly gave great alarm to the house of commons. They saw their title to every privilege, if not plainly denied, yet considered, at least, as very precarious. It might be forfeited by abuse, and they had already abused it. They thought proper, therefore, immediately to oppose pretension to pretension. They framed a protestation, where they repeated all their former claims for freedom of speech, and an unbounded authority to interpose with their advice and council. And they asserted, *That the liberties, franchises, privileges, and jurisdictions of parliament are the antient and undoubted birth-right and inheritance of the subjects of England.*<sup>5</sup>

5. This protestation is so remarkable, that it may not be improper to give it in its own words. 'The commons now assembled in parliament, being justly occasioned thereunto, concerning sundry liberties, franchises and privileges of parliament, amongst others here mentioned, do make this protestation following; That the liberties, franchises and jurisdictions of parliament are the antient and undoubted birth-right and inheritance of the subjects of England; and that the urgent and arduous affairs concerning the king, state, and defence of the realm and of the church of England, and the maintenance and making of laws and redress of mischiefs and grievances, which daily happen within this realm, are proper subjects and matter of council and debate in parliament, and that in the handling and proceeding

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The King, informed of these increasing heats and jealousies in the house, hurried to town. He sent immediately for the journal-book of the commons; and, with his own hand, before the council, he tore out this protestation; and ordered his reasons to be inserted in the council-book. He was doubly displeased, he said, with the protestation of the lower house; on account of the manner of framing it, as well as of the matter, which it contained. It was tumultuously voted, at a late hour, and in a thin house; and it was expressed in such general and ambiguous terms, as might serve for a foundation to the most enormous claims, and to the most unwarrantable usurpations upon his prerogative.

The meeting of the house might have proved dangerous after so violent a breach. It was no longer possible, while men were in such a temper, to finish any business. The King, therefore, prorogued the parliament, and soon after dissolved it by proclamation; where he also made an apology to the public for his whole conduct. The leading members of the house, Sir Edward Coke and Sir Robert Philips, were committed to the tower: Selden, Pym, and Mallory to other prisons. As a lighter punishment, Sir Dudley Diggs, Sir Thomas Crew, Sir Nathaniel Rich, Sir James Perrot, joined in commission with others, were sent into Ireland, to execute some business. The King, at that time,

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of those businesses, every member of the house of parliament hath, and, of right, ought to have, freedom of speech to propound, treat, reason, and bring to conclusion the same; and that the commons in parliament have like liberty and freedom to treat of these matters, in such order as in their judgments shall seem fittest, and that every member of the said house hath like freedom from all impeachment, imprisonment and molestation (other than by censure of the house itself) for, or concerning any speaking, reasoning or declaring of any matter or matters touching the parliament or parliament business. And that if any of the said members be complained of and questioned for any thing done or said in parliament, the same is to be shown to the king by the advice and assent of all the commons assembled in parliament, before the king give credence to any private information.'

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enjoyed, at least exercised, the prerogative of employing any man, even without his consent, in any branch of public service.

Sir John Saville, a powerful man in the house of commons, and a zealous opponent of the court, was made comptroller of the household, a privy counsellor, and soon after, a baron. This event is memorable; as being the first instance, perhaps, in the whole history of England, of any king's advancing a man, on account of parliamentary interest, and of opposition to his measures. However irregular this practice, it will be regarded by political reasoners, as one of the most early and most infallible symptoms of a regular, established liberty.

The King having thus, with so rash and indiscreet a hand, torn off that sacred veil, which hitherto covered the English constitution, and which threw an obscurity upon it, so advantageous to royal prerogative; every man began to indulge himself in political reasoning and inquiries; and the same factions, which commenced in parliament, were propagated thro'out the nation. In vain, did James, by reiterated proclamations, forbid the discoursing of state-affairs. Such proclamations, if they had any effect, served rather to inflame the curiosity of the public. And in every circle or society, the late transactions became the subject of argument and debate.

All history, said the partizans of the court, as well as the history of England, justify the King's position with regard to the origin of popular privileges; and every reasonable man must allow, that, as monarchy is the most simple form of government, it must first have occurred to rude and uninstructed mankind. The other complicated and artificial additions were the successive invention of sovereigns, and legislators; or, if they were obtruded on the prince by seditious subjects, their origin must appear, on that account, still more precarious and unfavorable. In England, the authority of the King, in all the forms of government and in the style of every law, appears totally absolute and sovereign; nor does the real spirit of the constitution, as it

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has ever discovered itself in practice, fall much short of these appearances. The parliament is created by his breath; by his breath it is dissolved. 'Tis his will alone, tho' at the desire of both houses, which gives authority to laws. To all foreign nations, the majesty of the monarch seems to merit chief attention and regard. And no subject, who has exposed himself to royal indignation, can propose to live with safety in the kingdom; nor can he even leave it, according to law, without the consent of his master. If a magistrate, environed with such power and splendor, should consider his authority as sacred, and regard himself as the anointed of heaven, his pretensions may bear a very favorable construction. Or, allowing them to be merely pious frauds, we need not be surprized, that the same stratagem, which was practised by Minos, Numa, and the most celebrated legislators of antiquity, should now, in these restless and inquisitive times, be employed by the King of England. Subjects are not raised above that quality, tho' assembled in parliament. The same humble respect and deference is still due to their prince. Tho' he indulges them in the privilege of laying before him their domestic grievances, with which they are supposed to be best acquainted, this warrants not their bold intrusion into each province of government. And, to every judicious examiner, it must appear, 'That the lines of duty are as much transgressed by a more independent and less respectful exercise of acknowledged powers, as by the usurpation of such as are new and unusual.'

The lovers of liberty, thro'out the nation, reasoned after a very different manner. 'Tis in vain, said they, that the King traces up the English government to its first origin, in order to represent the privileges of parliament as dependent and precarious: The prescription and practice of so many ages, must, long 'ere this time, have given a sanction to these assemblies, even tho' they had been derived from no more dignified an origin, than that which he assigns them. If the written records of the English nation, as asserted, represent parliaments to have arisen from the consent of monarchs; the principles of human nature, when we trace government

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a step higher, must show us, that monarchs themselves owe all their authority to the voluntary submission of the people. But, in fact, no age can be shown, when the English government was altogether an unmixed monarchy: And if the privileges of the nation have, at any particular period, been overpowered by violent irruptions of foreign force or domestic usurpation; the generous spirit of the people had ever seized the first opportunity of re-establishing the antient government and constitution. Tho', in the style of the laws, and in the usual form of administration, the royal authority may be represented as sacred and supreme; whatever is essential to the exercise of sovereign and legislative power, must still be regarded as equally divine and inviolable. Or, if any distinction be made in this respect, the preference is rather due to those national councils, by whose interposal the exorbitancies of tyrannical power are restrained, and that sacred liberty is preserved, which heroic spirits, in all ages, have deemed more precious than life itself. Nor is it sufficient to say, that the mild and equitable administration of James affords small occasion or no occasion of complaint. However moderate the exercise of his prerogative, however exact his observance of the laws and constitution; 'If he founds his authority on unknown and dangerous principles, 'tis requisite to watch him with equal care, and to oppose him with equal vigor, as if he had indulged himself in all the excesses of cruelty and tyranny.'

Amidst all these disputes, the wise and moderate in the nation endeavored to preserve, as much as possible, an equitable neutrality betwixt the opposite parties; and the more they reflected on the course of public affairs, the greater difficulty they found of fixing just sentiments with regard to them. On the one hand, they regarded the very rise of opposite parties as a happy prognostic of the establishment of liberty; nor could they ever expect to enjoy, in a mixed government, so invaluable a blessing, without suffering that inconvenience, which, in such governments, has ever attended it. But, when they considered, on the other hand, the necessary aims and pursuits of both parties, they

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were struck with apprehension of the consequences, and could discover no plan of peaceable accommodation betwixt them. From long practice, the crown was now possessed of so exorbitant a prerogative, that it was not sufficient for liberty to remain on the defensive, or endeavor to secure the little ground, which was left her: It was become requisite to carry on an offensive war, and to circumscribe, within narrower, as well as more exact bounds, the authority of the sovereign. Upon such provocation, it could not but happen, that the prince, however just and moderate, would endeavor to repress his opponents; and, as he stood upon the very brink of arbitrary power, it was to be feared, that he would, hastily and unknowingly, pass those limits, which were not precisely marked by the constitution. The turbulent government of England, ever fluctuating betwixt privilege and prerogative, would afford a variety of precedents, which might be pleaded on both sides. In such delicate questions, the people must be divided: The arms of the state were still in their hands: A civil war must ensue; a civil war, where no party or both parties would justly bear the blame, and where the good and virtuous would scarce know what vows to form, were it not that liberty, so requisite to the perfection of human society, would be sufficient to byass their affections towards the side of its defenders.

## CHAP. V

*Negotiations with regard to the marriage and the Palatinate – Character of Buckingham – Prince's journey to Spain – Marriage treaty broken – A parliament – Return of Bristol – Rupture with Spain – Treaty with France – Mansfeldt's expedition – Death of the King – His character*

To wrest the Palatinate from the hands of the Emperor and the Duke of Bavaria must always have been regarded as a very difficult task for the power of England, conducted by such an unwarlike prince as James: It was plainly impossible, while the breach continued betwixt him and the commons. The King's negotiations, therefore, had they been managed with never so great dexterity, must now carry less weight with them; and it was easy to elude all his applications. When Lord Digby, his ambassador to the Emperor, had desired a cessation of hostilities, he was remitted to the Duke of Bavaria, who commanded the Austrian armies. The Duke of Bavaria told him, that it was entirely superfluous to form any treaty for that purpose. *Hostilities are already ceased, said he; and I doubt not but I shall be able to prevent their revival, by keeping firm possession of the Palatinate, till a final agreement shall be concluded betwixt the contending parties.* Notwithstanding the insult, James endeavored to resume with the Emperor a treaty of accommodation; and he opened the negotiations at Brussels, under the mediation of the Archduke Albert, and, after his death, which happened about this time, under that of the Infanta: When the conferences were entered upon, it was found, that the powers of these princes to determine in the controversy were not sufficient nor satisfactory. Schwartzenbourg, the imperial minister, was expected at London; and it was hoped, that he would bring more ample authority: His commission referred entirely to the negotia-

tion at Brussels. It was not difficult for the King to perceive, that his applications were purposely eluded by the Emperor; but as he had no choice of any other expedient, and it seemed the interest of his son-in-law to keep alive his pretensions, he was still contented to follow Ferdinand thro' all his shifts and evasions. Nor was he entirely discouraged, even when the imperial diet at Ratisbon, by the influence, or rather authority of the Emperor, tho' contrary to the protestation of Saxony and all the reformed, had transferred the electoral dignity from the Palatine to the Duke of Bavaria.

Mean while, the efforts made by Frederic for the recovery of his dominions were vigorous. Three armies were levied in Germany by his commission, under three commanders, Duke Christian of Brunswick, the Prince of Baden-Dourlach, and Count Mansfeldt. The two former generals were defeated by Count Tilly and the imperialists: The third, tho' much inferior in force to his enemies, still maintained the war; but with no great supplies of money either from the Palatine or the King of England. 'Twas chiefly by pillage and free quarters in the Palatinate, that he subsisted his army. As the Austrians were regularly paid, they were kept in more exact discipline; and James became justly apprehensive, lest so unequal a contest, beside the spoil of the Palatine's patrimonial dominions, would end in the total alienation of the people from their antient sovereign, by whom they were plundered, and an attachment to their new masters, by whom they were protected. He therefore persuaded his son-in-law totally to disarm, under colour of duty and submission to the Emperor: And accordingly, Mansfeldt was dismissed from the Palatine's service; and that famous general withdrew his army into the low countries, and there received a commission from the states of the united provinces.

To shew how little account was made of James's negotiations abroad, there is a pleasantry which is mentioned by all historians, and which, for that reason, shall have place here. In a farce, acted at Brussels, a courier was introduced, carrying the doleful news, that the Palatinate would soon

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be wrested from the house of Austria; so powerful were the succours, which, from all quarters, were hastening to the relief of the despoiled Elector: The King of Denmark had agreed to contribute to his assistance a hundred thousand pickled herrings, the Dutch a hundred thousand butter-boxes, and the King of England a hundred thousand ambassadors. On other occasions, he was painted with a scabbard, but without a sword; or with a sword, which no body could draw, tho' several were pulling at it.

It was not from negotiations with the Emperor or the Duke of Bavaria, that James expected any success in his project for restoring the Palatine: His eyes were entirely turned towards Spain; and if he could effectuate his son's marriage with the Infanta, he doubted not, after so intimate a conjunction, but that this other point could easily be obtained. The negotiations of that court being naturally slow and dilatory, it was not easy for a prince of so little penetration in business, to distinguish whether the difficulties, which occurred, were real or affected; and he was surprised, after negotiating five years on so simple a demand, that he was not more advanced than at the beginning. The dispensation of Rome was requisite for the marriage of the Infanta with a protestant prince; and the King of Spain having undertaken to procure that dispensation, he had thereby acquired the means of retarding at pleasure, or of forwarding the marriage, and at the same time of concealing entirely his artifices from the court of England.

In order to remove all obstacles, James dispatched Digby, soon afterwards created Earl of Bristol, as his ambassador to Philip IV who had lately succeeded his father in the crown of Spain. He employed Gage as his agent at Rome; and finding that the difference of religion was the principal, if not sole difficulty which retarded the marriage, he resolved to soften that objection as much as possible. He issued public orders for discharging all popish recusants, who were imprisoned; and it was daily expected, that he should forbid for the future, the execution of the penal laws enacted against them. For this step, so opposite to the rigid bigotry

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of his subjects, he took care to apologize; and he even endeavored to ascribe it to his great zeal for the reformed religion. He had been making applications, he said, to all foreign princes for some indulgence to the distressed protestants; and he was still answered by objections derived from the severity of the English laws against catholics. And indeed, if the extremity of religious zeal was ever to abate among the christian sects, it might probably occur to him, that one of them must begin; and nothing would be more honorable for England, than to have been the first who led the way in so wise and moderate a practice.

Not only the religious puritans murmured at this tolerating measure of the King: The lovers of civil liberty were alarmed at so large an exercise of his prerogative. But among other dangerous articles of authority, the kings of England were, at that time, possessed of the dispensing power; at least, were in the constant practice of exercising it. Besides, tho' the royal prerogative in civil matters was then exorbitant, the princes, during some late reigns, had been accustomed to assume still a higher in ecclesiastical. And the King failed not to represent the toleration of catholics as a measure entirely of that nature.

By James's concessions in favor of the catholics, he obtained his end. The same religious motives, which had hitherto rendered the court of Spain insincere in all the steps taken towards the marriage, were now the chief cause of promoting it. By its means, it was there hoped, the English catholics would, for the future, enjoy ease and indulgence; and the Infanta would be the happy instrument of procuring to the church some tranquillity, after the many severe persecutions which it had hitherto undergone. The Earl of Bristol, a minister of vigilance and penetration, and who had formerly opposed all alliance with catholics, was now fully convinced of the sincerity of Spain; and he was ready to congratulate the King on the entire completion of all his views and projects. A daughter of Spain, whom he represents as extremely accomplished, would soon, he said, arrive in England, and bring with her an immense fortune

of two millions,<sup>1</sup> a sum four times greater than Spain had ever before given with any princess. But what was of more importance to the King's honor and happiness; Bristol considered this match as an infallible prognostic of the Palatine's restoration; nor would Philip, he thought, ever have bestowed his sister and so large a fortune, under the prospect of entering, next day, into a war with England. So exact was his intelligence, that the most secret councils of the Spaniards, he boasts, had never escaped him; and he found that they had, all along, considered the marriage of the Infanta and the restitution of the Palatinate as measures closely connected, or altogether inseparable. However little calculated James's character, however improper the measures which he had pursued, to extort so vast a concession; the ambassador could not withstand the plain evidence of facts, by which Philip now demonstrated his sincerity. Perhaps too, like a wise man, he considered, that reasons of state, which are supposed solely to influence the councils of monarchs, are not always the motives which there predominate; that the milder views of gratitude, honor, friendship, generosity, are frequently able, among princes as well as private persons, to counterbalance these selfish considerations; that the justice and moderation of James had been so conspicuous in all these transactions, his reliance on Spain, his confidence in her friendship, that he had, at last, obtained the cordial alliance of that nation, so celebrated for honor and fidelity. Or if politics must still be supposed the ruling motive of all public measures; the maritime power of England was so great, the Spanish dominions so divided, as might well induce the council of Philip to think, that a sincere friendship with the masters of the sea could not be purchased by too many concessions. And as James, during so many years, had been allured and seduced by hopes and protestations, his people enraged by

1. It appears by Buckingham's narrative, that these two millions were of pieces of eight, and made 600,000 pound Sterling: A very great sum, and almost equal to all the sums which the parliament, during the whole course of this reign, had hitherto bestowed on the King.

delays and disappointments; it would probably occur, that there was now no medium left betwixt the most inveterate hatred and the most intimate alliance betwixt the nations. Not to mention, that, as a new spirit began about this time to animate the councils of France, the friendship of England became every day more requisite for the greatness and security of the Spanish monarchy.

All measures being, therefore agreed betwixt the parties, nought was wanting but the dispensation from Rome, which might be considered as a mere formality. The King warranted by success, now exulted in his pacific councils, and boasted of his superior views and penetration; when all these flattering prospects were blasted by the temerity of a man, whom he had fondly exalted from an obscure condition to be the bane of himself, of his family, and of his people.

Ever since the fall of Somerset, Buckingham had governed with an uncontrolled sway, both the court and nation; and could James's eyes have been opened, he had now full opportunity of observing how unfit his favourite was for the high station to which he had raised him. Some accomplishments of a courtier he was possessed of: Of every talent of a minister he was utterly devoid. Headlong in his passions, and incapable equally of prudence and of dissimulation: Sincere from violence rather than from candor; expensive from profusion more than from generosity: A warm friend, a furious enemy; but without any choice or discernment in either: With these qualities he had early and quickly mounted to the highest rank; and partook at once of the insolence which attends a fortune newly acquired, and the impetuosity which belongs to persons born in high stations, and unacquainted with opposition.

Among those, who had experienced the arrogance of this overgrown favorite, the Prince of Wales himself had not been entirely spared; and a great coldness, if not enmity, had, for that reason, taken place betwixt them. Buckingham, desirous of an opportunity, which might connect him

with the Prince and overcome his aversion, and at the same time envious of the great credit acquired by Bristol in the Spanish negotiation, bethought himself of an expedient, by which he might, at once, gratify both these inclinations. He represented to Charles, That persons of his exalted station were peculiarly unfortunate in their marriage, the chief circumstance in life; and commonly received into their arms a bride, unknown to them, to whom they were unknown; not endeared by sympathy, not obliged by services; wooed by treaties alone, by negotiations, by political interests: That however accomplished the Spanish Princess, she must still consider herself as a melancholy victim of state, and could not but think with aversion of that day when she was to enter the bed of a stranger; and passing into a foreign country and a new family, bid adieu for ever to her father's house and to her native land: That it was in the Prince's power to soften all these rigors, and lay such an obligation on her, as would attach the most indifferent temper, as would warm the coldest affections: That his journey to Madrid would be an unexpected gallantry, which would equal all the fictions of Spanish romance, and suiting the amorous and enterprizing character of that nation, must immediately introduce him to the Infanta under the agreeable character of a devoted lover and daring adventurer: That the negotiations with regard to the Palatinate, which had hitherto languished in the hands of ministers, would quickly be terminated by so illustrious an agent, seconded by the mediation and intrigues of the grateful Princess: That the Spanish generosity, moved by that unexampled trust and confidence, would make concessions beyond what could be expected from political views and considerations: And that he would quickly return to the King with the glory of having re-established the unhappy Palatine, by the same enterprize, which procured him the affections and the person of the Spanish Princess.

The mind of the young Prince, replete with candor, was inflamed by these generous and romantic ideas. He agreed to make application to the King for his approbation. They

chose the moment of his kindest and most jovial humor; and more by the earnestness which they expressed, than by the force of their reasons, they obtained a hasty and unguarded assent to their undertaking. And having engaged his promise to keep their purpose secret, they left him, in order to make preparations for their journey.

No sooner was the King alone, than his temper, more timorous than sanguine, suggested very different views of the matter, and represented every difficulty and danger which would occur. He reflected, that, however the world might pardon this sally of youth in the Prince, they would never forgive himself, who, at his years, and after his experience, could entrust his only son, the heir of his crown, the prop of his age, to the discretion of foreigners, without so much as providing the frail security of a safe conduct in his favor: That, if the Spaniard was sincere in his professions, a few months must finish the treaty of marriage, and bring the Infanta into England; if he was not sincere, the folly was still more egregious of committing the Prince into his hands: That, when possessed of so invaluable a pledge, he might well rise in his demands, and impose harder conditions of treaty: And that the temerity of this enterprize was so apparent, that the event, however prosperous, could never justify it; and if disastrous, it would render him infamous to his people, and ridiculous to all posterity.

Tormented with these reflections, so soon as the Prince and Buckingham returned for their dispatches, he informed them of all the reasons which had determined him to change his resolution; and he begged them to desist from so foolish an adventure. The Prince received the disappointment with sorrowful submission and silent tears: Buckingham presumed to speak in an imperious tone, which he had ever experienced to be prevalent over his too easy master. He told him, that no body, for the future, would believe any thing he said, when he retracted so soon the promise, so solemnly given; that he plainly discerned this change of resolution to proceed from another breach of his word, in communicating the matter to some rascal, who had fur-

nished him with those pitiful reasons, which he had alleged, and he doubted not but he should hereafter know who his counsellor had been; and that if he receded from what he had promised, it would be such a disobligation to the Prince, who had now set his heart upon the journey, after his Majesty's approbation, that he could never forget it, nor forgive any man who had been the cause of it.

The King, with great earnestness, fortified by many oaths, made his apology, by denying, that he had communicated the matter to any man; and finding himself assailed, as well by the boistrous importunities of Buckingham, as by the warm entreaties of his son, whose applications had hitherto, on other occasions, been always dutiful, never earnest; he had again the weakness to assent to their purposed journey. It was agreed, that Sir Francis Cottington alone, the Prince's secretary, and Endymion Porter, gentleman of his bed-chamber, should accompany them; and the former being at that time in the anti-chamber, he was immediately called in by the King's order.

James told Cottington, that he had always been an honest man, and therefore he was now to trust him in an affair of the highest importance, which he was not, upon his life, to disclose to any man whatever. 'Cottington,' added he, 'here is baby Charles and Stenny' (these ridiculous appellations he usually gave to the Prince and Buckingham) 'who have a great mind to go post into Spain, and fetch home the Infanta: They will have but two more in their company, and have chosen you for one. What think you of the journey?' Sir Francis, who was a prudent man, and had resided some years in Spain as the King's agent, was struck with all the obvious objections to such an enterprize, and immediately discovered them. The King threw himself upon his bed, and cryed, *I told you this before*; and fell into new passion and lamentation, complaining that he was undone, and should lose baby Charles.

The Prince showed by his countenance, that he was extremely dissatisfied with Cottington's discourse; but Buckingham broke out into an open passion against him.

The King, he told him, asked him only of the journey and of the manner of travelling; particulars, of which he might be a competent judge, having made the way so often by post; but that he, without being called to it, had the presumption to give his advice upon matters of state and against his master, which he should repent so long as he lived. A thousand other reproaches he added, which put the poor King into a new agony on behalf of a servant, who, he foresaw, would suffer for answering him honestly. Upon which he said with some commotion: *Nay, by God, Stenny, you are much to blame for using him so: He answered me directly to the question which I asked him, and very honestly and wisely; and yet, you knew, he said no more, than I told you before he was called in.* However, after all this passion on both sides, James renewed his consent; and all proper directions were given for the journey. Nor was he now at any loss to discover, that the whole intrigue was originally contrived by Buckingham, as well as pursued violently by his spirit and impetuosity.

These circumstances, which so well characterize the persons, seem to have been related by Cottington to Lord Clarendon, from whom they are here transcribed; and, tho' minute, are not undeserving of a place in history.

The Prince and Buckingham, with their two attendants, and Sir Richard Graham, master of horse to Buckingham, passed disguised and undiscovered thro' France; and they even ventured into a court-ball at Paris, where Charles saw the Princess Henrietta, whom he afterwards espoused, and who was, at that time, in the bloom of youth and beauty. In eleven days after their departure from London, they arrived at Madrid; and surprized every body by a step so little usual among great princes. The Spanish monarch immediately visited Charles, expressed the utmost gratitude for the confidence reposed in him, and made warm protestations of a correspondent confidence and friendship. By the most studied civilities, he marked the respect, which he bore his royal guest. He gave him a golden key, which opened all his apartments, that the Prince might, without

any introduction, have access to him at all hours: He took the left hand of him on every occasion, except in the apartments assigned to Charles; for there, he said, the Prince was at home: Charles was introduced into the palace with the same pomp and ceremony which attend the kings of Spain on their coronation: The council received public orders to obey him as the King himself: All the prisons of Spain were thrown open, and all the prisoners received their freedom, as if the event, the most honorable and most fortunate, had happened to the monarchy: And every sumptuary law with regard to apparel was abrogated and suspended during his residence in Spain. The Infanta, however, was only shown to her lover in public; the Spanish ideas of decency being so strict, as not to allow of any more intercourse, till the arrival of the dispensation.

The point of honor was carried so far by that generous people, that no attempt was made, on account of the advantage, which they had acquired, of imposing any harder conditions of treaty: Their pious bigotry only prompted them, on one occasion, to desire more concessions in the religious articles; but, on the opposition of Bristol, accompanied with some reproaches, they immediately desisted. The Pope, however, hearing of the Prince's arrival in Madrid, tacked some new clauses to the dispensation; and it became requisite to transmit the articles to London, that the King might there ratify them. This treaty, which was made public, consisted of several articles, chiefly regarding the exercise of the catholic religion by the Infanta and her family. Nothing could reasonably be found fault with, except one article, where the King promised, that the children should be educated by the Princess, till ten years of age. This condition could not be insisted on, but with a view of reasoning their minds with catholic prejudices; and tho' so tender an age seemed little susceptible of theological tenets, yet the same reason, which made the Pope insert that article, should have induced the King to reject it.

Beside the public treaty, there were separate articles,

privately sworn to by the King; where he promised to suspend the penal laws enacted against catholics, to procure a repeal of them in parliament, and to grant a toleration for the exercise of the catholic religion in private houses. Great murmurs, we may believe, would have arisen against these articles, had they been made known to the public; since we find it to have been imputed as an enormous crime to the Prince, that, having received, about this time, a very civil letter from the Pope, he was induced to return a very civil answer.

Mean while Gregory XV who granted the dispensation, died; and Urban VIII was chosen in his place. Upon this event, this nuncio refused to deliver the dispensation, till it should be renewed by Urban; and the nuncio delayed the sending a new dispensation, in hopes, that, during the Prince's residence in Spain, some expedient might be fallen upon to operate his conversion. The King of England, as well as the Prince, became impatient. On the first hint, Charles obtained permission to return; and Philip graced his departure with all the circumstances of elaborate civility and respect, which had attended his arrival. He even erected a pillar, on the spot where they separated, as a monument of mutual friendship; and the Prince, having sworn to the observance of all the articles, entered on his journey, and embarked on board the English fleet at St Andero.

The character of Charles, composed of decency, reserve, modesty, sobriety; virtues so suitable to the manners of the Spaniards; the unparalleled confidence, which he had reposed in their nation; the romantic gallantry, which he had practised towards their Princess; all these circumstances, joined to his youth and agreeable figure, had endeared him to the whole court of Madrid, and had impressed the most favorable ideas of him. But, in the same proportion, that the Prince was beloved and esteemed, was Buckingham despised and hated. His behavior, composed of English familiarity and French vivacity; his sallies of passion, his indecent freedoms with the Prince, his dissolute pleasures, his

arrogant, impetuous temper, which he neither could, nor cared to disguise; qualities like these, could, most of them, be esteemed no where, but to the Spaniards were the objects of peculiar aversion. They could not conceal their surprize, that such a hair-brained youth could intrude into a negotiation, now conducted to a period, by so accomplished a minister as Bristol, and could assume to himself all the merit of it. They lamented the Infanta's fate, who must be approached by a man, whose temerity seemed to respect no laws, divine or human. And when they observed, that he had the imprudence to insult the Condé Duke of Olivarez, their prime minister; every one, who was ambitious of paying court to the Spanish, became desirous of marking a contempt for the English favorite.

The Duke of Buckingham told Olivarez, that his own attachment to the Spanish nation and to the King of Spain was extreme; that he would contribute to every measure, which would cement the friendship betwixt England and them; and that his peculiar ambition would be to facilitate the Prince's marriage with the Infanta. But, he added, with a sincerity, equally insolent and indiscreet, *With regard to you, Sir, in particular, you must not consider me as your friend, but must ever expect from me all possible enmity and opposition.* The Condé Duke replied, with a becoming dignity, that he very willingly accepted of what was proffered him: And on these terms the favorites parted.

Buckingham, sensible how odious he was become to the Spaniards, and dreading the influence, which that nation would naturally acquire after the arrival of the Infanta, resolved to employ all his credit, in order to prevent the marriage. By what arguments he could engage the Prince to offer such an insult to the Spanish nation, from whom he had met with such generous treatment; by what colors he could disguise the ingratitude, perfidy, and imprudence of such a measure; these are totally unknown to us. It only appears, that his impetuous and domineering character had acquired, what it ever after maintained, a total ascen-

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dant over the gentle and modest temper of Charles; and, when the Prince left Madrid, he was firmly determined, notwithstanding all his professions, to break off the treaty with Spain.

It is not likely, that Buckingham prevailed so easily with James to abandon a project, which, during so many years, had been the object of all his wishes, and which he had now unexpectedly conducted to a happy period. A rupture with Spain, the loss of two millions, were prospects little agreeable to this pacific and indigent monarch: But, finding his only son bent against a match, which had always been opposed by his people and his parliament, he succumbed under difficulties, which he had not courage nor strength of mind sufficient to resist. The Prince, therefore, and Buckingham, on their arrival at London, assumed intirely the direction of the negotiation; and it was their business to seek for pretexts, by which they could give color to their intended violation of treaty.

Tho' the restitution of the Palatinate had ever been considered by James as a natural or necessary consequence of the Spanish alliance, he had always forbid his ministers to insist on it as a preliminary article to the conclusion of the marriage-treaty. He considered, that that principality was now intirely in the hands of the Emperor and the Duke of Bavaria; and that it was no longer in the King of Spain's power, by a single stroke of his pen, to restore it to the antient proprietor. The strict alliance of Spain with these princes would engage Philip, he thought, to soften so disagreeable a demand by every art of negotiation; and many articles, must, of necessity, be adjusted, before such an important point could be effectuated. It was sufficient, in James's opinion, if the Spaniards' sincerity could, for the present, be ascertained; and, dreading farther delays in the marriage, so long wished for, he was resolved to trust the Palatine's full restoration to the event of future councils and deliberations.

This whole system of politics, Buckingham now reversed; and he over-turned every supposition, upon which the treaty

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had hitherto been conducted. Bristol received orders not to deliver the proxy, which had been left in his hands, nor to finish the marriage, till the full restitution of the Palatinate. Philip understood this language. He had been acquainted with the disgust received by Buckingham; and esteeming him a man, capable of sacrificing, to his own ungovernable passions, the greatest interests of his master and of his country, he had expected that the unbounded credit of that favorite would be employed to embroil the two nations. Determined, however, to throw the blame of the rupture intirely on the English, he delivered into Bristol's hand a written promise, by which he bound himself to procure the restoration of the Palatine, either by persuasion, or by every other possible means; and, when he found that that concession gave no satisfaction, he ordered the Infanta to lay aside the title of Princess of Wales, and to drop her study of the English language. And thinking, that such furious councils as now governed the court of England would not stop at the breach of treaty, he ordered preparations for war immediately to be made thro'out all his dominions.

Thus James, having, by means, inexplicable from all the rules of politics, conducted, so near an honorable end, the marriage of his son and the restoration of his son-in-law, failed at last of his purpose, by means equally unaccountable:

But, tho' the expedients, already used by Buckingham, were sufficiently inglorious, both for himself and for the nation; it was requisite, 'ere he could fully effect his purpose, to employ artifices still more shameful and dishonorable.

The King, having broke with Spain, was obliged to concert new measures; and, without the assistance of parliament, no effectual step of any kind could be taken. The benevolence, which, during the interval, had been rigorously exacted for the recovery of the Palatinate, tho' levied for so favorable an end, had acquired the King less money than

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ill-will from his subjects.<sup>2</sup> Whatever discouragements, therefore, he might receive from his bad agreement with former parliaments, there was a necessity of summoning once more this assembly; and, it might be hoped, that the Spanish alliance, which gave such umbrage, being abandoned, the commons would now be better satisfied with the King's administration. In his speech to the houses, James dropped some hints of the causes of complaint which he had against Spain; and he graciously condescended to ask the parliament's advice, which he had ever before rejected, with regard to the conduct of so important an affair as his son's marriage. Buckingham, to a committee of lords and commons, delivered a long narrative, which he pretended to be true and compleat, of every step taken in the negotiations with Philip: But partly by the suppression of some facts, partly by the false coloring laid on others, this narrative was calculated intirely to mislead the parliament, and to throw on the court of Spain the reproach of artifice and insincerity. He said, that, after many years negotiation, the King found not himself any nearer his purpose; and that Bristol had never brought the treaty beyond general professions and declarations: That the Prince, doubting the good intentions of Spain, resolved at last to take a journey to Madrid, and put the matter to the utmost trial: That he there found such artificial dealing as made him conclude all the steps taken towards the marriage to be false and deceitful: That the restitution of the Palatinate, which had ever been regarded by the King as an essential preliminary, was not seriously intended by Spain: And that, after enduring much ill-usage, the Prince was obliged to return to England,

2. To show by what violent measures this benevolence was raised, Johnstone, an excellent, but unknown historian, tells us, in his *Rerum Britannicarum historia*, that Barnes, a citizen of London, was the first who refused to contribute any thing; upon which, the treasurer sent him word, that he must immediately prepare himself to carry by post a dispatch into Ireland. The citizen was glad to make his peace by paying a hundred pound; and no one durst afterwards refuse the benevolence required.

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without any hopes, either of obtaining the Infanta, or of restoring the Elector Palatine.

This narrative, which, considering the importance of the occasion, and the solemnity of that assembly, to which it was delivered, deserves no better name, than that of an infamous imposture, was yet vouched for truth by the Prince of Wales, who was present; and the King himself lent it, indirectly, his authority, by telling the parliament, that it was by his order Buckingham laid the whole affair before them. The conduct of these princes it is difficult to excuse. 'Tis in vain to plead the youth and inexperience of Charles; unless his inexperience and youth, as is probable,<sup>3</sup> really led him into error, and made him swallow all the gross falsities of Buckingham. And, tho' the King was here hurried from his own measures by the furious impetuosity of others; nothing should have induced him to prostitute his character, and vouch the impostures of his favorite, of which he had so good reason to entertain a suspicion.

Buckingham's narrative, however artificially disguised, contained yet so many contradictory circumstances as were sufficient to open the eyes of all reasonable men; but it concurred so well with the passions and prejudices of the parliament, that no scruple was made of immediately adopting it. Charmed with having obtained at last the opportunity, so long wished for, of going to war with papists, they little thought of future consequences; but immediately advised the King to break off both treaties with Spain, as well that which regarded the marriage, as that for the restitution of the Palatinate. The people, ever greedy of war, till they suffer by it, marked their triumph at these violent

3. The moment the Prince embarked at St Andero's, he said, to those about him, that it was folly in the Spaniards to use him so ill, and allow him to depart: A proof that the Duke had made him believe they were insincere in the affair of the marriage and the Palatinate: For, as to his reception, in other respects, it had been altogether unexceptionable: Besides, had not the Prince believed the Spaniards to be insincere, he had no reason to quarrel with them; tho' Buckingham had. It appears, therefore, that Charles himself must have been deceived.

measures by public bonefires and rejoicings, and by insults on the Spanish ministers. Buckingham was now the universal favorite of the public and of the parliament. Sir Edward Coke, in the house of commons, called him the Savior of the nation. Every place resounded with his praises. And he himself, intoxicated by a popularity, which he enjoyed so little time, and which he so little merited, violated all duty to his indulgent master, and entered into cabals with the puritan members, who had ever opposed the royal authority. He even encouraged schemes for abolishing the order of bishops, and selling the dean and chapter lands, in order to defray the expences of a Spanish war. And the King, who still entertained projects for temporizing, and for forming an accommodation with Spain, was so borne down by the torrent of popular prejudices, conducted and increased by Buckingham, that he was at last obliged, in a speech to parliament, to declare in favor of hostile measures, if they would engage to support him. Doubts of their sincerity in this respect; doubts which the event showed not to be ill-grounded; had probably been one cause of his former tame and dilatory measures.

In his speech on this occasion, the King began with lamenting his misfortunes, that, having so long plumed himself in the epithet of the pacific monarch, he should now, in his old age, be obliged to exchange the blessing of peace for the inevitable calamities of war. He represented to them the immense and continued expence, requisite for military armaments; and beside supplies, from time to time, as they should become requisite, he demanded a vote of six subsidies and twelve fifteenths, as a stock requisite before the commencement of hostilities. He told them of his intolerable debts and burthens, chiefly contracted by the sums remitted to the Palatine;<sup>4</sup> but he added, that he did

4. Among other particulars, he mentions a sum of 80,000 pound borrowed from the King of Denmark. But what is more extraordinary, the treasurer, in order to show his own good services, boasts to the parliament, that, by his contrivance, 60,000 pound had been saved on the head of exchange in the sums remitted to the Palatinate. This

not insist on any supply for his own relief, and that it was sufficient for him, if the honor and security of the public were provided for. To remove all suspicion, he, who had ever strenuously maintained his prerogative, and even extended it into some doubtful points, now made a most imprudent concession, of which the consequences might have been fatal to regal authority: He voluntarily offered, that the money voted should be payed into a committee of parliament, and should be issued by them, without being intrusted to his management. The commons willingly accepted of this concession, so unprecedented in an English monarch; they voted him only three subsidies and three fifteenths;<sup>5</sup> and they took no notice of the complaints, which he made of his own wants and necessities.

Advantage was also taken of the present good agreement betwixt the King and parliament, in order to pass the bill against monopolies, which had formerly been encouraged by the King, but which had failed by the rupture betwixt him and the last house of commons. This bill was conceived in such terms as to render it merely declarative; and all monopolies were condemned, as contrary to law and to the known liberties of the people. It was there supposed, that every subject of England had intire liberty to dispose of his own actions, provided he did no injury to any of his fellow subjects; and that no prerogative of the King, no power of any magistrate, nothing but the authority alone of laws, could restrain that unlimited freedom. The full prosecution of this noble principle into all its necessary consequences, has, at last, thro' many contests, produced that singular and happy government, which at present we enjoy.<sup>6</sup>

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seems scarce credible, nor is it conceivable whence the King could procure such vast sums as would require a sum so great to be payed in exchange.

5. Less than 300,000 pound.

6. How little this principle had prevailed, during any former period of the English government, particularly during the last reign, which certain writers, from a shameful ignorance, would represent

The house of commons also corroborated, by a new precedent, the important power of impeachment, which, two years before, they had exercised, in the case of Chancellor Bacon, and which had lain dormant for more than a century before, except when they served as instruments of royal vengeance. The Earl of Middlesex had been raised by

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as the model of liberty, will easily appear from some passages, extracted from Sir Simon D'ewes's journal and Townshend's collections.

In the session, the 39th and 40th of Elizabeth, complaints were made in the house of commons against monopolies, which had certainly risen to an enormous height, much beyond what they ever reached during the reign of James; but the Queen thought not proper to grant any redress. In the session, the 43d of that reign, a bill was brought into the house against monopolies; but all the prudent members esteemed it much more advisable to proceed by way of petition to the Queen. Here are some passages of the debates, which will perhaps surprise such of the English readers, as know nothing of history beyond what they have learned from pamphlets, and daily writers.

'Mr Spicer, burgess of Warwic, said, This bill may touch the prerogative royal, which as I learned the last parliament, is so transcendent that the — of the subject may not aspire thereunto. Far be it therefore from me, that the state and prerogative royal of the prince should be tied by me or by the act of any other subject. Mr Francis Bacon said, as to the prerogative royal of the prince, for my own part, I ever allowed of it; and it is such as, I hope, will never be discussed. The Queen, as she is our sovereign, hath both an enlarging and restraining power. For, by her prerogative, she may first set at liberty things restrained by statute, law, or otherways; and, secondly, by her prerogative, she may restrain things, which be at liberty. For she may grant *non obstante* contrary to the penal laws. — I say, and I say again, that we ought not to deal, to judge or meddle, with her Majesty's prerogative. Dr Bennet said, He that will go about to debate her Majesty's prerogative, had need to walk warily. Mr Laurence Hyde said, I confess, Mr Speaker, that I owe duty to God and loyalty to my prince. And for the bill itself, I made it, and I think I understand it. And, far be it from this heart of mine to think, this tongue to speak, or this hand to write, any thing either in prejudice or derogation of her Majesty's prerogative royal and the state. Mr George Moore said, We know the power of her Majesty cannot be restrained by any act; why therefore should we thus talk? Admit we should make this statute with a *non obstante*, yet the

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Buckingham's interest, from the rank of a London merchant, to be Lord high treasurer of England; and, by his activity and address, seemed not unworthy of that preferment. But, having incurred the displeasure of his patron, by scrupling or refusing some demands of money, during the

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Queen may grant a patent with a *non obstante*, to cross this *non obstante*. Mr Wingfield said, It was my hap, the last parliament, to encounter with the word prerogative; but as then, so now, I do it with all humility; and wish all happiness both to it and to her Majesty.'

On the second reading of the bill, Mr Spicer again said, 'The way of petition will be our safest course: For it is to no purpose to tie her Majesty's hands by act of parliament, when she may loosen herself at her pleasure. Mr Davies said, God hath given that power to absolute princes, which he attributeth to himself, *Dixi quod dii estes.*' (This doctrine he applies to the kings of England.) 'Mr Secretary Cecil said, I am servant unto the Queen; and, before I would speak or give consent to a case, that would debase her prerogative or abridge it, I would wish my tongue cut out of my head. — One gentleman went about to possess us with the execution of the law in an antient record of Edward III.; likely enough to be true in that time, when the king was afraid of the subject. — If ye stand upon law, and dispute of the prerogative, hark ye what Bracton says, *Prerogativam nostrum nemo audeat disputare*, Let no man dare to dispute of our prerogative. Mr Francis Moore, at another time, said, I must confess, Mr Speaker, 'I moved the house, both the last parliament and this, touching this point; but I never meant (and I hope this house thinketh so) to set limits and bounds to the prerogative royal.'

All this strange parliamentary language passed uncontrovèrted; and came equally, from the mouths of those who were attached or who were not attached to the court: These were the only distinctions known: For, 'tis easily conceived, there could be no opposition to the court, no country-party, while such maxims prevailed. But the ideas of men were much changed, during about twenty years of a gentle and peaceful administration. The commons, tho' James, of himself, had recalled all patents of monopolies, were not contented without a law against them, and a declarative law too; which was gaining a great point, and establishing principles very favorable to liberty: But they were extremely grateful, if Elizabeth, upon petition, (after having once refused their requests) recalled a few of the most oppressive patents; and employed some soothing expressions towards them.

In the same session, *viz.* the 43d of Elizabeth, a bill being brought in against pluralities, Mr Sergeant Harris said, 'We seem to defend

Prince's residence in Spain, that favorite vowed vengeance, and employed all his credit among the commons to procure an impeachment of the treasurer. The King was extremely dissatisfied with this measure, and prophesied to the Prince and Duke, that they would live to have their fill of parlia-

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the privileges and customs of the house: But, if we proceed to determine of this bill, we shall not only infringe a custom, which we have ever observed, *viz.* to meddle with no matter that toucheth her Majesty's prerogative; but also procure her great displeasure. Admit we should determine of this matter, yet her Majesty may grant toleration with a *non obstante*. And, Mr Speaker, the last parliament may be a warning to us, when the like bill by us was preferred, and the same not only rejected, but also her Majesty commanded the Lord keeper to tell us, that she hoped we would not hereafter meddle in cases of this nature so nearly touching her prerogative royal.'

In the 35th of Elizabeth, the Queen sent to the commons a message, which would appear somewhat strange. These were the speaker's expressions when he related the matter to the house; 'Her Majesty's most excellent pleasure being then delivered unto us by the Lord keeper, it was not meant we should meddle in matters of state, or in causes ecclesiastical (for so her Majesty termed them) she wondered that any should be of so high commandment to attempt (I use her own words) a thing contrary to that, which she had so expressly forbidden; wherefore with this she was highly displeased. And, because the words then spoken by my Lord keeper are not now perhaps well remembered, or some be now here that were not there; her Majesty's present charge and express commandment is, That no bills, touching matters of state or reformation in causes ecclesiastical, be exhibited: And, upon my allegiance, I am commanded, if any such bill be exhibited, not to read it.' 'Tis remarkable, that the Queen rejected 48 bills, which had passed the two houses, during this session.

When the parliament was upon this footing, instead of wondering, that no more than four pound should be given as a bribe for a seat (which was discovered to be the case, in one instance during Elizabeth's reign) we shall be inclined to think, that the member, bating the fees, made a very dear purchase.

The parliament had surely reason, when they confessed, in the seventh of James, that he allowed them more freedom of debate, than ever was indulged by any of his predecessors. His indulgence in this particular was probably one cause of the great power assumed by the commons.

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mentary prosecutions. In a speech to the parliament, he endeavored to apologize for Middlesex, and to soften the accusation against him. The charge, however, was still maintained by the commons; and the treasurer was found guilty by the peers, tho' the misdemeanors proved against him, were neither numerous nor important. The accepting two presents, of five hundred pound a-piece, for the passing two patents, was the article of greatest weight. His sentence was, to be fined 50,000 pound for the King's use, and to suffer all the other penalties formerly inflicted upon Bacon. The fine was afterwards remitted by the Prince, when he mounted the throne.

This session, an address was also made, very disagreeable to the King, craving the severe execution of the laws against catholics. His answer was gracious and condescending; tho' he declared against persecution; as being an improper measure for the suppression of any religion; according to the received maxim, *That the blood of the martyrs was the seed of the church.* He also condemned an intire indulgence of the catholics; and seemed to represent a middle course, as the most humane and most politic. He went so far as even to affirm, with an oath, that he never had entertained any thought of granting a toleration to these religonists. Perhaps, the liberty of exercising their religion in private houses, which he had secretly agreed to in the Spanish treaty, he did not esteem deserving that name; and it was probably by means of this evasion, he thought, tho' falsely, that he had saved his honor. After all these transactions, the parliament was prorogued by the King, who let fall some hints, tho' in gentle terms, of the sense, which he entertained, of their unkindness, in not supplying his necessities.

James, unable to resist so strong a combination as that of his people, his parliament, his son, and his favorite, had been compelled to embrace measures, for which, from temper as well as judgment, he had ever entertained a most settled aversion. Tho' he dissembled his resentment, he began to estrange himself from Buckingham, to whom he

ascribed all those violent councils, and whom he considered as the author, both of the Prince's journey into Spain, and of the breach of the marriage-treaty. The arrival of Bristol, he impatiently longed for; and it was by the assistance of that minister, whose wisdom he respected, and whose views he approved that he hoped, in time, to extricate himself from his present difficulties.

During the Prince's abode in Spain, that able negotiator had ever opposed, tho' unsuccessfully, to the impetuous measures, suggested by Buckingham, his own wise and well-tempered councils. After Charles's departure, upon the first appearance of a change of resolution, he still interposed his advice, and strenuously insisted on the Spaniards' sincerity in the conduct of the treaty, as well as the advantages, which England must reap from the completion of it. Enraged to find, that his successful and skilful labors should all be rendered abortive by the levities and caprices of an insolent minion, he would understand no hints; and nothing but express orders from his master could engage him to make that demand, which, he was sensible, would put a final period to the treaty. He was not, therefore, surprized to hear, that Buckingham had declared himself his open enemy, and both before the council and parliament, had thrown out many scandalous reflections against him. Upon the first order, he prepared for leaving Madrid; and he was carried to the King of Spain and the Condé Duke, in order to fulfil the ceremonial of his departure.

Philip, by the mouth of his minister, expressed much regret, that Bristol's services should meet with so unworthy a reward, and that his enemies should so far have prevailed as to infuse prejudices into his master and his country against a minister, who had so faithfully done his duty to both. He entreated him to fix his abode in Spain, rather than expose himself to the inveterate malice of his rival and the ungovernable fury of the people. He offered him every advantage of rank and fortune, to soften the rigors of banishment; and, lest his honor should suffer by the desertion of his native country, the monarch promised to confer

all these advantages, with a public declaration, that they were bestowed merely for his fidelity to the trust committed to him. And he added, that he esteemed such a conduct of importance to his own service; that all his ministers, observing his regard to virtue even in a stranger, might be the more animated to exert their fidelity towards so generous a master.

The Earl of Bristol, while he expressed the utmost gratitude for this princely offer, thought himself obliged to decline the acceptance of it. He said, that nothing would more confirm all the calumnies of his enemies than his remaining at Madrid, and his receiving honor and preferment from his catholic Majesty; that the highest dignity of the Spanish monarchy, however valued, would be but an unequal compensation for the loss of his honor, which he must sacrifice to the obtaining of it; that he trusted to his own innocence for protection against all the fury of popular prejudice; and that his master was so just and gracious, that, however he might, for a time, be seduced by calumny, he would surely afford him an opportunity of defending himself, and would in the end restore him to his favor and good opinion.

So magnanimous an answer increased the esteem which Philip had conceived of the ambassador. That prince begged him, at least, to accept of a present of 10,000 ducats, which might be requisite for his support, till he could dissipate the prejudices contracted against him; and he promised, that this compliance should for ever remain a secret to all the world, and should never come to the knowledge of his master. *There is one person,* replied the generous Englishman, *who must necessarily know it: He is the Earl of Bristol, who will certainly reveal it to the King of England.*

Nothing could be of greater consequence to Buckingham, than to keep Bristol at a distance both from the King and the parliament; lest the power of truth, enforced by so powerful a speaker, should open scenes, which were but suspected by the former, and of which the latter had as yet entertained no manner of jealousy. He applied therefore to

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James, whose weakness, disguised to himself under the appearance of finesse and dissimulation, was now become absolutely incurable. A warrant for sending Bristol to the tower was granted immediately upon his arrival in England; and tho' he was soon released from that confinement, yet orders were carried him from the King, to retire to his country seat, and to abstain from all attendance on the parliament, which was not yet prorogued. He obeyed; but loudly demanded an opportunity of justifying himself, and of laying his whole conduct before his master. On all occasions, he protested his innocence, and threw on his enemy the blame of every miscarriage. Buckingham, and, at his instigation, the Prince, declared, that they would be reconciled to Bristol, if he would but acknowlege his errors and ill conduct: But the high spirited Nobleman, jealous of his honor, refused to buy favor at so high a price. James had the equity to say, that the insisting on that condition was a strain of unexampled tyranny: But Buckingham scrupled not to assert, with the utmost presumption, that neither the King, the Prince, nor himself were, as yet, satisfied of Bristol's innocence.

While the attachment of the Prince to Buckingham, while the timidity of James, or the shame of changing his favorite, kept the whole court in awe; the Spanish ambassador, Inoiosa, endeavored to open the King's eyes, and to cure his fears by instilling greater fears into him. He privately slipt into his hand a paper, and gave him a signal to read it alone. He there told him, that he was as much a prisoner at London as ever Francis I was at Madrid; that the Prince and Buckingham had conspired together, and had the whole court at their devotion; that cabals among the popular leaders in parliament were carrying on to the extreme prejudice of his royal authority; that the project was to confine him to some of his hunting seats, and to commit the whole administration of affairs to the management of Charles; and that it was requisite for him, by one vigorous effort, to vindicate his throne, and to punish those who had so long and so much abused his goodness and facility.

What credit James gave to his representation does not appear. He only discovered some faint symptoms, which he instantly retracted, of dissatisfaction with Buckingham. All his public measures, and all the alliances, into which he entered, were founded on the system of enmity to the Austrian family, and of war to be carried on for the recovery of the Palatinate.

The states of the united provinces, at this time, were governed by Maurice; and that aspiring prince, sensible that his credit would languish during peace; on the expiration of the twelve years truce, had renewed the war with the Spanish monarchy. His great capacity in the military art would have supplied the inferiority of his forces, had not the Spanish armies been commanded by Spinola, a general equally renowned for conduct, and more celebrated for enterprize and activity. In such a situation, nothing could be more welcome to the republic than the prospect of a rupture betwixt James and the catholic King; and they flattered themselves, as well from the natural union of interests betwixt them and England, as from the influence of the present conjecture, that powerful succors would soon march to their relief. Accordingly, an army of six thousand men was levied in England, and sent over into Holland, commanded by four young Noblemen, Essex, Oxford, Southampton, and Willoughby, who were ambitious of distinguishing themselves in so favorable a cause, and of acquiring military experience under so renowned a captain as Maurice.

It might reasonably have been expected, that, as religious zeal had made the recovery of the Palatinate appear a point of such vast importance in England; the same effect must have been produced in France, by the force merely of political views and considerations. While that principality remained in the hands of the house of Austria, the French dominions were surrounded on all sides by the possessions of one or the other branch of that ambitious family, and might be invaded by superior forces from every quarter. It concerned the King of France therefore to prevent the

peaceable establishment of the Emperor in his new conquests; and both by the situation and greater power of his state, he was better enabled than James to give succor to the distressed Palatine. But tho' these views escaped not Louis, nor Cardinal Richelieu, who began to acquire an ascendant over his master; that minister was determined to prepare his vast enterprizes, by first subduing the Huguenots, and thence to proceed, by mature councils, to humble the house of Austria. The prospect, however, of a conjunction with England was presently embraced, and all imaginable encouragement was given to every proposal for conciliating a marriage betwixt Charles and the Princess Henrietta.

Notwithstanding the sensible experience, which James might have acquired, of the unsurmountable antipathy entertained by his subjects against all alliance with catholics, he still persevered in the ridiculous opinion, that his son would be degraded, by receiving into his bed a princess of less than royal pedigree. After the rupture, therefore, with Spain, nothing remained but an alliance with France; and to that court he immediately applied himself. The same allurements had not here place, which had so long entangled him in the Spanish negotiation: The portion promised was much inferior; and the peaceable restoration of the Palatine could not thence be expected. But being afraid, lest his son should be altogether disappointed of a bride, as soon as the christian King demanded, for the honor of his crown, the same terms which had been granted to the catholic, James was prevailed with to comply. And as the Prince, during his abode in Spain, had given a verbal promise to allow the Infanta the education of her children till the age of thirteen, this article was here inserted in the treaty; and to that imprudence is generally imputed the present distressed condition of his posterity. The court of England, however, it must be confessed, always pretended, even in their memorials to the French court, that all the favorable conditions, granted to the catholics, were inserted in the marriage treaty merely to please the Pope, and that

their strict execution, by an agreement with France, was secretly dispensed with.<sup>7</sup>

As much as the conclusion of the marriage treaty was acceptable to the King, as much were all the military enterprises disagreeable, both from the extreme difficulty of the undertaking, in which he was engaged, and from his own incapacity for such a scene of action.

During the Spanish negotiation, Heidelberg and Manheim had been taken by the imperial forces; and Frankendale, tho' the garrison was entirely English, was closely besieged by them. Upon re-iterated remonstrances from James, Spain interposed, and procured a suspension of arms during eighteen months. But as Frankendale was the only place of his ancient dominions, which continued in Frederic's hands, Ferdinand, being desirous of withdrawing his forces from the Palatinate, and of leaving that state in security, was unwilling, that so important a fortress should remain in the possession of the enemy. To compound all differences, it was agreed to sequestrate it in the Infanta's hands as a neutral person; upon condition, that, after the expiration of the truce, it should be delivered to Frederic; tho' peace should not, at that time, be concluded betwixt him and Ferdinand. After the unexpected rupture with Spain, when James demanded the execution of the treaty, the Infanta offered him peaceable possession of Frankendale, and even promised secure passage for the garrison thro' the Spanish Netherlands: But there was some territory of the empire interposed betwixt her state and the Palatinate; and for passage over that territory no terms were stipulated.

7. Rymer, tom. 18. p. 224. Tis certain, that the young Prince of Wales, afterwards Charles II had protestant governors from his early infancy, first the Earl of Newcastle, then the Marquis of Hertford. The King, in his memorial to foreign churches after the commencement of the civil wars, insists on his care in educating his children to the protestant religion, as a proof that he was no way inclined to the catholic. Rushworth, vol. 5. p. 752. It can scarce, therefore, be questioned, but this article, which has so odd an appearance, was inserted only to amuse the Pope, and was never intended by either party to be executed.

By this chicane, which certainly had not been employed, if amity with Spain had been preserved, the Palatine was totally dispossessed of all his patrimonial dominions.

The English nation, however, and James's warlike council were not discouraged. It was still resolved to reconquer the Palatinate; a state lying in the midst of Germany, possessed entirely by the Emperor and Bavaria, surrounded by potent enemies, and cut off from all communication with England. Count Mansfeldt was taken into pay; and an English army of 12,000 foot and 200 horse were levied by a general press thro'out the kingdom. During the negotiation with France, vast promises had been made, tho' in general terms, by the French ministry; not only, that a free passage should be granted the English troops, but also that powerful succors should join them in their march towards the Palatinate. In England, all these possessions were hastily interpreted to be positive engagements. The troops, under Mansfeldt's command, were embarked at Dover; but upon sailing over to Calais, found no orders yet arrived for their admission. After waiting in vain for some time, they were obliged to sail towards Zealand; where no proper measures were yet concerted for their disembarkation; and some scruples arose among the states on account of the scarcity of provisions. Mean while, a pestilential distemper crept in among the English forces, so long cooped up in narrow vessels. Half the army died while on board; and the other half, weakened by sickness, appeared too small a body to march into the Palatinate. And thus ended this ill concerted and fruitless expedition; the only disaster, which happened to England, during the properous and pacific reign of James.

That reign was now drawing towards a conclusion. With peace, so successfully cultivated, and so passionately loved by this monarch, his life also terminated. This spring, he was seized with a tertian ague; and, when encouraged by his courtiers with the common proverb, that this distemper, during that season, was health for a king, he replied, that the proverb was meant of a young king. After some fits, he found himself extremely weakened, and sent for the Prince,

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whom he exhorted to bear a tender affection for his wife, but to preserve a constancy in religion; to protect the church of England; and to extend his care towards the unhappy family of the Palatine. With decency and courage, he prepared himself for his end; and he expired on the 27th of March, after a reign over England of twenty two years and a few days; and in the fifty ninth year of his age. His reign over Scotland was almost of equal duration with his life.

No prince, so little enterprizing and so inoffensive, was ever so much exposed to the opposite extremes of calumny and flattery, of satyre and panegyric. And the factions, which began in his time, being still continued, have made his character be as much disputed to this day, as is commonly that of princes who are our contemporaries. Many virtues, however, it must be owned, he was possessed of; but no one of them pure, or free from the contagion of the neighboring vices. His generosity bordered on profusion, his learning on pedantry, his pacific disposition on pusillanimity, his wisdom on cunning, his friendship on light fancy and boyish fondness. While he imagined, that he was only maintaining his own authority, he may justly be suspected, in some of his actions, and still more of his pretensions, to have encroached on the liberties of his people: While he endeavored, by an exact neutrality, to acquire the good will of all his neighbors, he was able to preserve fully the esteem and regard of none. His capacity was considerable; but fitter to discourse on general maxims than to conduct any intricate business: His intentions were just; but more adapted to the conduct of private life, than to the government of kingdoms. Aukward in his person, and ungainly in his manners, he was ill qualified to command respect; partial and un-discriminating in his affections, he was little fitted to acquire general love. Of a feeble temper more than of a frail judgment: Exposed to our ridicule from his vanity; but exempt from our hatred by his freedom from pride and arrogance. And upon the whole, it may be pronounced of his character, that all his qualities were sullied with weakness, and embel-

lished by humanity. Political courage he certainly was devoid of; and from thence chiefly is derived the strong prejudice which prevails against his personal bravery: An inference, however, which must be owned, from general experience, to be extremely fallacious.

He was only once married, to Anne of Denmark, who died on the 3d of March, 1619, in the forty fifth year of her age; a woman eminent neither for her vices nor her virtues. She loved expensive amusements and shows; but possessed no taste in her pleasures. A great comet appeared about the time of her death; and the vulgar esteemed it the forerunner of that event. So considerable in their eyes are even the most insignificant princes.

He left only one son, Charles, then in the twenty fifth year of his age; and one daughter, Elizabeth, married to the Elector Palatine. She was aged twenty nine years. Those alone of six legitimate children born to him. He never had any illegitimate; and he never discovered any tendency, even the smallest, towards a passion of any mistress.

The Archbishops of Canterbury during this reign were, Whytgift, who died in 1604; Bancroft, in 1610; Abbot, who survived the King. The chancellors, Lord Ellesmore, who resigned in 1617; Bacon was first Lord keeper till 1619, then was created chancellor, and was displaced in 1621; Williams, bishop of Lincoln was created Lord keeper in his place. The high treasurers were the Earl of Dorset, who died in 1609; the Earl of Salisbury, 1612; the Earl of Suffolk fined and displaced for bribery in 1618; Lord Mandeville, resigned in 1621; Earl of Middlesex, displaced in 1624; the Earl of Marlborough succeeded. The Lord admirals were, the Earl of Nottingham, who resigned in 1618; the Earl, afterwards Duke of Buckingham. The secretaries of state were, the Earl of Salisbury, Sir Ralph Winwood, Nanton, Calvert, Lord Conway, Sir Albertus Moreton.

The numbers of the house of lords, in the first parliament of this reign, beside the bishops, were seventy eight temporal peers. The numbers in the first parliament of Charles were ninety seven. Consequently James, during that

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period, created nineteen new peerages above those that expired.

The house of commons, in the first parliament of this reign, consisted of four hundred and sixty seven members. It appears, that four burroughs revived their charters, which they had formerly neglected. And as the first parliament of Charles consisted of four hundred and ninety four members, we may infer that James erected ten new burroughs.

## CHAP. VI

*Civil government of England during this period – Ecclesiastical government – Manners – Finances – Navy – Commerce – Manufactures – Colonies – Learning and arts*

IT may not be improper, at this period, to make a pause; and, departing a little from the historical style, take a survey of the state of the kingdom, with regard to government, manners, finances, arms, trade, learning. Where a just notion is not formed of these particulars, history can be very little instructive, and often will not be intelligible.

We may safely pronounce, that the English government, at the accession of the Scottish line, was much more arbitrary, than it is at present, the prerogative more unlimited, the liberties of the subject less accurately defined and secured. Without mentioning other particulars, the courts alone of high commission and star-chamber were sufficient to lay the whole kingdom at the mercy of the prince.

The court of high commission had been erected by Elizabeth, in consequence of an act of parliament, passed at the beginning of her reign: By this act, it was thought proper, during the great revolution of religion, to arm the sovereign with full powers, in order to discourage and suppress opposition. All appeals from the inferior ecclesiastical courts were carried before the high commission; and, of consequence, the whole life and doctrine of the clergy lay directly under its inspection. Every breach of the act of uniformity, every refusal of the ceremonies, was cognizable in this court; and, during the reign of Elizabeth, had been punished by deprivation, by fines, confiscations, and imprisonment. James contented himself with the gentler penalty of deprivation; nor was that punishment inflicted

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with rigor on every offender.<sup>1</sup> All the catholics too were liable to be punished by this court, if they exercised any act of their religion, or were any way active in sending abroad their children or other relations, to receive that education, which they could not procure them in their own country. Popish priests were thrown into prison, and might be delivered over to the law, which punished them with death; tho' that severity had been sparingly exercised by Elizabeth, and never almost by James. In short, that precious liberty of conscience, which we so highly value at present, was totally suppressed; and no exercise of any religion, but the established, was permitted thro'out the kingdom. Any word or writing, which tended towards heresy or schism or sedition, was punishable by the high commissioners or any three of them: They alone were judges what expressions had that tendency: They proceeded not by information, but upon rumor, suspicion, or according to their own fancy: They administred an oath, by which the party, cited before them, was bound to answer any question, which should be propounded to him: Whoever refused this oath, tho' under pretext that he might thereby be brought to accuse himself or his dearest friend, was punishable by imprisonment: And in short, an inquisitorial tribunal, with all its terrors and iniquities, was erected in the kingdom. Full discretionary powers were bestowed with regard to the inquiry, trial, sentence, and penalty inflicted; excepting only that corporal punishments were restrained by that patent of the prince, which erected that court, not by the act of parliament, which empowered him. By reason of the uncertain limits, which separate ecclesiastical from civil causes, all accusations of adultery and incest were tried by the court of high commission; and every complaint of wives against

1. Archbishop Spotswood tells us, that he was informed by Bancroft, several years after the King's accession, that not above 45 clergymen had been deprived. We may safely regard that number as almost the whole, that suffered during this reign. Abbot, who succeeded Bancroft in the see of Canterbury was very gentle to the puritans.

their husbands was there examined and discussed.<sup>2</sup> Under like pretexts, every cause, which regarded conscience, that is, every cause, could have been brought under their jurisdiction.

But there was a sufficient reason, why the king would not be anxious to stretch the jurisdiction of this court: The star-chamber possessed the same authority in civil matters; and its methods of proceeding were equally arbitrary and unlimited. The origin of this court was derived from the most remote antiquity; tho', 'tis pretended, that its power had been first carried to the utmost height by Henry VII. At all times, however, 'tis confessed, it enjoyed authority; and at no time was its authority circumscribed, or method of proceeding directed, by any precise law or statute.

We have already, or shall have sufficient occasion, during the course of this history, to mention the dispensing power, the power of imprisonment, of exacting forced loans<sup>3</sup> and benevolence, of pressing and quartering soldiers, of altering the customs, of erecting monopolies. These branches of power, if not directly opposite to the principles of all free government, must, at least, be acknowledged destructive to freedom in a monarchical constitution; where an eternal jealousy must be preserved against the sovereign, and no discretionary powers must ever be entrusted to him, by which any subject can be affected. The kings of England, however, had almost constantly exercised these powers; and if, on any occasion, the prince had been obliged to submit to laws enacted against them, he had ever, in practice, eluded these laws, and returned to the same arbitrary administration. During a whole century before the accession of James, the regal authority, in almost all these particulars, had never once been called in question.

We may also observe, that the principles in general, which prevailed during that age, were so favourable to mon-

2. Rymer, tom. xvii. p. 200.

3. During the two last centuries, no reign had passed without some forced loans from the subject.

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archy, that they bestowed on it an authority almost absolute and unlimited, sacred and indescribable.

The meetings of parliament were so precarious; their sessions so short, compared to the vacations; that, when men's eyes were turned upwards in search of sovereign power, the prince alone was apt to strike them as the only permanent magistrate, invested with the whole majesty and authority of the state. The great complaisance too of parliaments, during so long a period, had extremely degraded and obscured those assemblies; and as all instances of opposition to prerogative must have been drawn from a remote age, they were unknown to a great many, and had the less authority even with those, who were acquainted with them. These examples, besides, of liberty, had commonly been accompanied with such circumstances of violence, convulsion, civil war, and disorder, that they presented but a disagreeable image to the inquisitive part of the people, and afforded small inducement to renew such dismal scenes. By a great many, therefore, monarchy, simple and unmixed, was conceived to be the government of England; and those popular assemblies were imagined to form only the ornament of the fabric, without being, in any degree, essential to its being and existence.<sup>4</sup> The prerogative of the crown was

4. 'Monarchies,' according to Sir Walter Raleigh, 'are of two sorts, touching their power or authority, *viz.* 1. Entire, where the whole power of ordering all state-matters, both in peace and war, doth, by law and custom, appertain to the prince, as in the English kingdom; where the prince hath the power to make laws, league and war; to create magistrates; to pardon life; of appeal, &c. Tho', to give a contentment to the other degrees, they have a suffrage in making laws, yet ever subject to the princes pleasure and negative will. 2. Limited or restrained, that hath no full power in all the points and matters of state, as the military king, that hath not the sovereignty in time of peace, as the making of laws, &c. But in war only, as the **POLONIAN** king. *Maxims of State.*'

And a little after, 'In every just state, some part of the government is, or ought to be, imparted to the people, as in a kingdom, a voice and suffrage in making laws; and sometimes also of levying of arms (if the charge be great, and the prince forced to borrow help of his subjects) the matter rightly may be propounded to a parliament, that

represented by lawyers as something real and durable; like those eternal essences of the schools, which no time nor force could alter. The sanction of religion, was, by divines, called in aid; and the Monarch of heaven was supposed to

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the tax may *seem* to have proceeded from themselves. So consultations and some proceedings in judicial matters may, in part, be referred to them. The reason, lest, feeling themselves to be in no number nor of reckoning, they mislike the state or government.' This way of reasoning differs little from that of the King, who considered the privileges of the parliament as matters of grace and indulgence, more than of inheritance. 'Tis remarkable, that Raleigh was esteemed to lean towards the puritanical party, notwithstanding these positions. But ideas of government change much in different times.

Raleigh's sentiments on this head are still more openly expressed, in his *Prerogative of parliaments*, a work not published till after his death. 'Tis a dialogue betwixt a courtier or counsellor and a country justice of peace, who represents the patriot party, and defends the highest notions of liberty, which the principles of that age would bear. Here is a passage of it: '*Counsellor.* That which is done by the king, with the advice of his private or privy council, is done by the king's absolute power. *Justice.* And by whose power is it done in parliament but by the king's absolute power? Mistake it not, my Lord: The three estates do but advise as the privy council doth; which advice, if the king embrace, it becomes the king's own act in the one, and the king's law in the other, &c.'

The Earl of Clare, in a private letter to his son-in-law Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford, thus expresses himself. 'We live under a prerogative-government, where book-law 'submits to *lex loquens*.' He spoke from his own, and all his ancestors experience. There was no single instance of power, which a king of England might not, at that time, exert, under pretext of necessity or expediency: The continuance alone or frequent repetition of arbitrary administration might prove dangerous, for want of force to support it. 'Tis remarkable that this letter of the Earl of Clare was wrote in the first year of Charles's reign; and consequently must be meant of the general genius of the government, not the spirit or temper of the monarch. See Strafford's letters, vol. i. p. 32. From another letter in the same collection, vol. i. p. 10, it appears, that the council sometimes assumed the power of forbidding persons, disagreeable to the court, to stand in the elections. This authority they could exert in some instances; but we are not thence to infer, that they could shut the door of that house to every one who was not acceptable to them. The genius of the antient government reposed more trust in the king, than to entertain any such suspicion, and it allowed scattered in-

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be interested in supporting the authority of his earthly vice-regent. And tho' these doctrines were perhaps more openly inculcated and more strenuously insisted on during the reign of the Stuarts, they were not then invented; and were only found more necessary at that period, by reason of the opposite doctrines, which began to be promulgated by the puritannical party.<sup>5</sup>

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stances, of such a kind as would have been totally destructive of the constitution, had they been continued without interruption.

I have not met with any English writer of that age, who speaks of England as a limited monarchy, but as an absolute one, where the people have many privileges; but, whether dependant or independant on the will of the monarch, is a question, that, in most governments, it is best to forbear. Surely that question was not determined, before the age of James. The rising spirit of the parliament, along with that King's love of general, speculative principles, brought it from its obscurity, and made it be generally canvassed. The strongest testimony, which I remember from a writer of James's age, in favor of English liberty, is in Cardinal Bentivoglio, a foreigner, who mentions the English government as similar to that of the low-country provinces under their princes, rather than to that of France or Spain. Englishmen were not so sensible that their prince was limited; because they were sensible, that no individual had any full security against a stretch of prerogative: But foreigners, by comparison, could perceive, that there stretches, from custom or other causes, were, at that time, less frequent in England than in other monarchies. Philip de Comines too remarked the English constitution, to be more popular, in his time, than that of France.

5. Passive obedience is expressly and zealously inculcated in the homilies, composed and published by authority, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The convocation, which met in the very first year of the King's reign, voted as high monarchical principles as are contained in the decrees of the university of Oxford, voted during the reign of the tories. These principles, so far from being esteemed a novelty, introduced by King James's influence, passed so smoothly, that no historian has taken notice of them: They were never the subject of controversy, or dispute, or discourse; and it is only by means of bishop Overall's Convocation-book, printed near 70 years after, that we are acquainted with them. Would James, who was so cautious, and even timid, have ventured to begin his reign with a bold stroke, which would have given just ground of jealousy to his subjects? It appears, from that monarch's Basilicon Doron, wrote while he was in Scotland, that the republican ideas of the origin of

In consequence of these exalted ideas of kingly authority, the prerogative, beside the instances of jurisdiction, founded on precedent, was, by many, supposed to possess an inexhaustible fund of latent powers, which might be exerted on any emergence. In every government, necessity, when real, supersedes all laws, and levels all limitations: But, in the English government, convenience alone was conceived to authorize any extraordinary act of regal power, and to render it obligatory on the people. Hence the strict obedience required to proclamations, during all periods of the English history; and, if James has incurred blame on account of his edicts, 'tis only because he multiplied them at a time, when they began to be less regarded, not because he first assumed that exercise of authority. Of his maxims in a parallel case, the following is a pretty remarkable instance.

Queen Elizabeth had appointed commissioners for the inspection of prisons, and had bestowed on them full discretionary powers to adjust all differences betwixt prisoners and their creditors, to compound debts, and to give liberty to such debtors as they found honest, and incapable of making full payment. From the uncertain and undefined nature of the English constitution, doubts sprang up in many, that this commission was contrary to law; and it was represented in that light to James. He forbore therefore to renew the commission, till the fifteenth of his reign; when complaints rose so high, with regard to the abuses practised in prisons, that he thought himself obliged to overcome his scruples, and to appoint new commissioners,

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power from the people were, at that time, esteemed puritannical novelties. The patriarchal scheme, 'tis remarkable, is inculcated in those votes of the convocation preserved by Overall; nor was Filmer the first inventer of those absurd notions. Into how many shapes have political reasonings been turned, in order to avoid an obvious, but, it seems, too homely a truth? The patriarchal scheme is nonsense. The original contract is opposed by experience. Men are unwilling to confess, that all government is derived from violence, usurpation or injustice, sanctified by time, and sometimes by a seeming imperfect consent.

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invested with the same discretionary powers, which Elizabeth had formerly conferred.<sup>6</sup>

Upon the whole, we must conceive that monarchy, on the accession of the house of Stuart, was possessed of a very extensive authority: An authority, in the judgment of all, not exactly limited; in the judgment of some, not limitable. But, at the same time, this authority was founded merely on the opinion of the people, influenced by antient precedent and example. It was not supported either by money or by force of arms. And, for that reason, we need not wonder, that the princes of that line were so extremely jealous of their prerogative; being sensible, that, when those claims were ravished from them, they possessed no influence, by which they could maintain their dignity. By the changes, which have since been introduced, the liberty and independence of individuals has been rendered much more full, intire, and secure; that of the public more uncertain and precarious.

We have had occasion to remark, in so many instances, the bigotry, which prevailed in that age, that we can look for no toleration among the different sects. Two arians, under the title of heretics, were punished with fire during this period; and no one reign, since the reformation, had been free from like barbarities. Stowe says, that these arians were offered their pardon at the stake, if they would merit it by a recantation. A madman, who called himself the Holy Ghost, was, without any indulgence for his frenzy, condemned by the bishop of Lichfield to the same punishment. Twenty pounds a month, by law, could be levied from every one, who frequented not the established worship. This rigorous law, however, had one indulgent clause, that the fines exacted should not exceed two thirds of the yearly income of the person. It had been usual for Elizabeth to allow those penalties to run on for several years; and to levy them all at once, to the utter ruin of such catholics, as had incurred her displeasure. James was more humane in this as in every other respect. The puritans formed a sect, which

6. Rymer, tom. xviii. p. 117, 594.

secretly lurked in the church, but pretended not to any separate worship or discipline. An attempt of that kind would have been regarded as the most unpardonable enormity.

The liberty of the press was incompatible with such maxims and such principles of government, and was therefore quite unknown in that age. Beside the two terrible courts of star-chamber and high-commission, whose power was unlimited; Queen Elizabeth exerted her authority by restraints upon the press. She passed a decree in her court of star-chamber, that is, by her own will and pleasure, forbidding any book to be printed in any place but in London, Oxford, and Cambridge<sup>7</sup>: And another, in which she prohibited, under severe penalties, the publishing any book or pamphlet *against the form or meaning of any restraint or ordinance, contained or to be contained, in any statute or laws of this realm, or in any injunction made or set forth by her Majesty or her privy council, or against the true sense or meaning of any letters patent, commissions or prohibitions under the great seal of England.*<sup>8</sup> James extended the same penalties to the importing such books from abroad.<sup>9</sup> And, to render those edicts more effectual, he afterwards prohibited the printing any book without a permission from the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Archbishop of York, the bishop of London, or the vice chancellor of one of the universities, or of some person appointed by them.<sup>10</sup>

The manners of the nation were suitable to the monarchical government, which prevailed; and contained not that strange mixture, which, at present, distinguishes England from all other countries. Such violent extremes were then unknown, of industry and debauchery, frugality and profusion, civility and rusticity, fanaticism and scepticism. Candor, sincerity, modesty are the only qualities, which the English of that age possessed in common with the present.

High pride of family then prevailed; and it was by a dig-

7. 28th of Eliz. See state-trials: Sir Rob. Knightley, vol. 7, edit. 1.

8. Rymer, tom. xvii. p. 522. 9. Id. ibid. 10. Id. p. 616.

nity and stateliness of behaviour, that the gentry and nobility distinguished themselves from the common people. Great riches, acquired by commerce, were more rare, and had not, as yet, been able to confound all ranks of men, and render money the chief foundation of distinction. Much ceremony took place in the common intercourse of life, and little familiarity was indulged by the great. The advantages, which result from opulence, are so solid and real, that those possessed of them need not dread the near approaches of their inferiors. The distinctions of birth and title, being more empty and imaginary, soon vanish upon familiar access and acquaintance.

The expences of the great consisted in pomp and show and a numerous retinue rather than in convenience and true pleasure. The Earl of Nottingham, in his embassy to Spain, was attended with 500 persons: The Earl of Hertford, in that to Brussels, carried 300 gentlemen along with him.

Civil honors, which now occupy the first place, were, at that time, subordinate to the military. The young gentry and nobility were fond of distinguishing themselves by arms. The fury of duels too prevailed more than at any time before or since. This was the turn, that the romantic chivalry, for which the nation was formerly so renowned, had lately taken.

Liberty of commerce betwixt the sexes was indulged; but without any licentiousness of manners. The court was very little an exception to this observation. James had entertained rather an aversion and contempt for the females; nor were those young courtiers, of whom he was so fond, able to break thro' the established manners of the nation.

The country life prevails at present in England beyond any nation of Europe, except Poland; but it was then much more generally embraced by all the gentry. The increase of arts, pleasures, and social commerce, was just beginning to produce an inclination for the softer and more civilized life of the city. James discouraged, as much as possible, this alteration of manners. 'He was wont to be very earnest,' as Lord Bacon says, 'with the country-gentlemen to go from

London to their country-seats. And sometimes he would say thus to them: *Gentlemen, at London, you are like ships in a sea, which show like nothing; but, in your country-villages, you are like ships in a river, which look like great things.*<sup>11</sup>

He was not contented with reproofs, and exhortations. As Queen Elizabeth had perceived, with regrete, the increase of London, and had restrained all new buildings by proclamation; James, who found, that these edicts were not exactly obeyed, frequently renewed them; tho' a strict execution seems still to have been wanting. Re-iterated proclamations he also issued, in imitation of his predecessor; accompanied with severe menaces against the gentry, who lived in town.<sup>12</sup> This policy is contrary to that, which has ever been practised by all princes, who studied the increase of their authority. To allure the nobility to court; to engage them in expensive pleasures or employments, which involve their fortune; to increase their subjection to ministers by attendance; to weaken their authority in the provinces by absence: These have been the common arts of arbitrary government. But James had no money to support a splendid court, or bestowe on a numerous retinue of gentry and nobility. He thought too, that, by their living together, they became more sensible of their own strength, and were apt to indulge too curious researches into matters of government. To remedy the present evil, he was desirous of dispersing them into their country-seats; where, he hoped, they would bear a more submissive reverence to his authority, and receive less support from each other. But the contrary effect soon followed. The riches, amassed, during their residence at home, rendered them independent. The influence, acquired by hospitality, made them formidable. They would not be led by the court: They could not be driven: And thus the system of the English government received a total and a sudden alteration in the course of less than forty years.

The first rise of commerce and the arts had contributed,

11. Apophthegms.

12. Rymer, tom. xvii. p. 632.

in preceding reigns, to scatter those immense fortunes of the barons, which rendered them so formidable both to king and people. The farther progress of these advantages began, during this reign, to ruin the small proprietors of land;<sup>13</sup> and, by both events, the gentry, or that rank which composed the house of commons, enlarged their power and authority. The early improvements in luxury were seized by the greater nobles, whose fortunes, placing them above frugality, or even calculation, were soon dissipated in expensive pleasures. These improvements reached at last all men of property; and those of slender fortunes, who, at that time, were often men of family, imitating those of a rank immediately above them, reduced themselves to poverty. Their lands, coming to sale, swelled the fortune of those, who possessed riches sufficient for the fashionable expences; but who were not exempted from some care and attention to their domestic oeconomy.

The gentry too of that age were engaged in no expence, except that of country hospitality. No taxes were levied, no wars waged, no attendance at court expected, no bribery or profusion required at elections.<sup>14</sup> Could human nature ever reach happiness, the condition of the English gentry, under so mild and benign a prince, might merit that appellation.

The condition of the King's revenue, as it stood in 1617, is thus stated.<sup>15</sup> Of crown lands, 80,000 pounds a-year; by customs and new impositions, near 190,000; by wards and other various branches of revenue, beside purveyance, 180,000. The whole amounting to 450,000. The King's ordinary disbursements, by the same account, is said to exceed this sum thirty

13. Cabbala, p. 224. first edit.

14. Men seem then to have been ambitious of representing the counties, but careless of the burroughs. A seat, in the house was, in itself, of small importance: But the former became a point of honor among the gentlemen, journ. 10 Feb. 1620. Towns, which had formerly neglected their right of sending members, now began to claim it. Journ. 26. Feb. 1623.

15. See abstract, or brief declaration of his Majesty's revenue, with the assignations and defalcations upon the same.

six thousand pound.<sup>16</sup> All the extraordinary sums, which he had raised by subsidies, loans, sale of lands, sale of the title of baronet, money payed by the states and by the King of France, benevolences, &c. were, in the whole, about two millions, two hundred thousand pound. Of which the sale of lands afforded seven hundred and seventy five thousand pounds. The extraordinary disbursements of the King amounted to two millions; beside above four hundred thousand pound given in presents. Upon the whole, a sufficient reason appears, partly from necessary expences, partly from want of oeconomy, why the King, even early in his reign, was very deeply involved in debt.

Farmers, not commissioners, levied the customs. It seems, indeed, requisite, that the former method should always be tried before the latter; tho' a preferable one. When men's own interest is concerned, they fall upon a hundred expedients to prevent fraud in the merchants; and these the public may afterwards imitate, in establishing proper rules for its officers.

The customs were supposed to amount to five *per cent* of the value, and were levied upon exports, as well as imports. Nay the imposition upon exports, by James's arbitrary additions, is said to amount to twenty five *per cent*. This practice, so hurtful to industry, prevails still in France, Spain, and most countries of Europe. 'Tis strange, that it should also be continued in Ireland. The customs in 1604, yielded 127,000 pounds a-year:<sup>17</sup> They rose to 160,000 pounds towards the end of the reign.<sup>18</sup>

Interest during this reign, was never below eight *per cent*: An indication of the great profits and small progress of commerce.

All the extraordinary supplies granted by the parliament, during this whole reign, amounted not to more than 630,000 pounds; which, divided among twenty one years, makes 30,000 pounds a-year. I comprehend not those supplies,

16. The excess was formerly greater, as appears by Salisbury's account, See chap. 2.

17. Journ. 21. of May, 1604.

18. Id. 31. May, 1621.

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amounting to 300,000 pounds, which were given the King by his last parliament. These were paid into their commissioners; and the expences of the Spanish war would be much more than sufficient to exhaust them. The distressed family of the Palatine was a great burthen on James, during part of his reign. The King, it must be owned, possessed not frugality, proportioned to the narrowness of his revenue. Splendid equipages, however, he did not affect, nor costly furniture, nor a luxurious table, nor prodigal mistresses. His buildings too were not sumptuous; tho' the banqueting house must not be forgot, as a monument, which does honor to his reign. Hunting was his chief amusement, the cheapest pleasure in which a king can indulge himself. His expences were the effects of liberality, rather than of luxury.

One day, 'tis said, while he was standing amid some of his courtiers, a porter passed by, loaded with money, which he was carrying to the treasury. The King observed, that Rich, afterwards Earl of Holland, one of his handsome agreeable favorites, whispered somewhat to one standing near him. Upon enquiry, he found, that Rich had said, *How happy would that money make me!* Without hesitation, James bestowed it all upon him, tho' it amounted to 3000 pounds. He added, *you think yourself very happy in obtaining so large a sum; but I am more happy, in having an opportunity of obliging a worthy man, whom I love.* The generosity of James was more the result of a benign humor or light fancy than of reason or judgment. The objects of it were such as could render themselves agreeable to him in his loose hours; not such as were endowed with great merit, or who possessed talents or popularity, which could strengthen his interest with the people.

Subsidies and fifteenths are frequently mentioned by historians; but neither the amount of these taxes, nor the method of imposing them have been well explained. It appears, that the fifteenths formerly corresponded to the name, and were that proportionable part of the moveables.<sup>19</sup> But a

19. Coke Inst. book iv. cap. 1. Of fifteens, quinzins.

valuation being made, during the reign of Edward III that valuation was always adhered to, and each town payed unalterably a particular sum, which they themselves assessed upon the inhabitants. The same tax in corporate towns was called a tenth; probably, because there it was, at first, a tenth of the moveables. The whole amount of a tenth and fifteenth thro' the kingdom, or a fifteenth, as it is often more concisely called, was about 29,000 pound.<sup>20</sup> The amount of a subsidy was not invariable, like that of a fifteenth. In the eighth of Elizabeth, a subsidy amounted to 120,000 pound: In the fortieth, it was not above 78,000.<sup>21</sup> It afterwards fell to 70,000; and was continually decreasing.<sup>22</sup> The reason is easily collected from the method of levying it. We may learn from the subsidy bills,<sup>23</sup> that one subsidy was given for four shillings in the pound on land, and two shillings and eight pence on moveables thro'out the counties; a considerable tax, had it been strictly levied. But this was only the antient state of a subsidy. During the reign of James, there was not paid the fiftieth part of that sum. The tax was so far personal, that a man payed only in the county where he lived, tho' he should possess estates in other counties; and the assessors formed a loose estimation of his property, and rated him accordingly. To preserve, however, some rule in the estimation, it seems to have been the practice to keep an eye to past assessments, and to rate every man according as his ancestors, or men of such an estimated property, were accustomed to pay. This was a sufficient reason, why subsidies would not increase, notwithstanding the great increase of money and improvement of rents. But there was an evident reason, why they continually decreased. The favor, as is natural to suppose, ran always against the crown; especially during the latter end of Elizabeth, when subsidies became numerous and frequent, and the sums levied were considerable. The assessors, tho' accustomed to have an eye to past estimations, were not bound to observe any such rule; but might

20. Id. subsidies temporary.

21. Journ. 11. July 1610.

22. Coke's inst. book. iv. chap. 1. Subsidies temporary.

23. See statutes at large.

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rate anew any person, according to his present income. When rents fell, or parcels were sold off an estate, the proprietor was sure to represent these losses, and obtain a diminution of his subsidy; but where rents rose, or new lands were purchased, he kept his own secret, and payed no more than formerly. The advantage, therefore, of every change was taken against the crown; and the crown could obtain the advantage of none. And to make the matter worse, the alterations, which happened in property during this age were, in general, unfavorable to the crown. The small proprietors, or twenty pound men (for none of less income payed any subsidy) went continually to decay; and when their estates were swallowed up by a greater, the new purchaser increased not his subsidy. So loose indeed is the whole method of rating subsidies, that the wonder was not how the tax should continually diminish; but how it yielded any revenue at all to the king. It became at last so unequal and uncertain, that the parliament was obliged to change it for a land tax.

The price of corn, during this reign, and by consequence, that of the other necessaries of life, was no lower, or was rather higher, than at present. By a proclamation of James, establishing public magazines, whenever wheat fell below thirty two shillings a quarter, rye below eighteen, barley below sixteen, the commissioners were empowered to purchase corn for the magazines.<sup>24</sup> These prices then are to be regarded as low; tho' they would pass for very high by our present estimation. The best wool, during the greatest part of James's reign, was at thirty three shillings a tod: At present, it is not above two thirds of that value; tho' it is to be presumed, that our exports in woolen goods are considerably increased. The finer manufactures too, by the progress of art and industry, have been kept pretty near at the same value, if they have not rather diminished, notwithstanding the great increase of money. In Shakespear, the hostess tells Falstaff, that the shirts she bought him were holland at eight shillings a yard; a very high price at this

24. Rymer, tom. xvii. p. 526.

day, even supposing, what is not probable, that the best holland at that time was equal in goodness to the best which can now be purchased. In like manner, a yard of velvet, about the middle of Elizabeth's reign, was valued at two and twenty shillings.<sup>25</sup> I have not been able by any inquiry to learn the common price of butcher meat during the reign of James: But as bread is the chief article of food, and its price regulates that of every thing else, we may presume, that cattle bore a high value as well as corn. Besides, we must consider, that the general turn of that age, which no laws could prevent, was the converting arable into pasture: A certain proof that the latter was found more profitable, and consequently that all butcher meat, as well as bread, was considerably higher than at present. We have a regulation of the market with regard to poultry and some other articles, very early in Charles reign;<sup>26</sup> and the prices are high. A turkey cock four shillings and sixpence, a turkey hen three shillings, a pheasant cock six shillings, a pheasant hen five shillings, a partridge one shilling, a goose two shillings, a capon two and sixpence, a pullet one and sixpence, a rabbit eight pence, a dozen of pigeons six shillings. We must consider, that London at present is more than three times the bulk it was at that time. A circumstance, which much increases the price of poultry and of every thing that cannot conveniently be brought from a distance. The chief difference in expence betwixt that age and the present consists in the imaginary wants of men, which have since extremely multiplied. These are the principal reasons, why James's revenue would go farther than the same money in our time; tho' the difference is not so great as is usually imagined.

The public was entirely free from the great danger and expence of a standing army. While James was vaunting his divine viceregency, and boasting of an almost unlimited prerogative, he possessed not so much as a single regiment

25. See a compendium or dialogue inserted in the Memoirs of Wool. chap. 23.

26. Rymer tom. xix. p. 511.

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of guards to maintain his extensive claims: A sufficient proof, that he sincerely believed his pretensions to be well grounded, and a strong presumption, that they were at least built on plausible arguments. The militia of England, amounting to 160,000 men,<sup>27</sup> were the sole defence of the kingdom. 'Tis pretended, that they were kept in very good order during this reign.<sup>28</sup> The city of London got officers, who had served abroad, and who taught the trained bands their exercises in artillery-garden; a practice, which had been discontinued since 1588. All the counties of England, in emulation of the capital, were fond of showing a well ordered and well appointed militia. The natural propensity of men towards military shows and exercises will always be sufficient, along with a little attention of the sovereign, to excite and support this spirit in any nation. The very boys, at this time, in mimickry of their elders, enlisted themselves voluntarily into companies, elected officers, and practised the discipline, of which the models were every day exposed to their observation.<sup>29</sup> Sir Edward Harwood, in a memorial composed at the beginning of the subsequent reign, says, that England was so unprovided of horses fit for war, that 2000 men could not possibly be mounted thro'out the whole kingdom.<sup>30</sup> At present, the breed of horses is so much improved, that almost all those employed, either for the plough, waggon, or coach, would be fit for that purpose.

The disorders of Ireland obliged James to keep up some forces there, and put him to a great charge. The common pay of a private man in the infantry was eight pence a-day, a lieutenant two shillings, an ensign eighteen pence.<sup>31</sup> The armies in Europe were not near so numerous, during that age; and the private men, we may observe, were drawn from

27. Journ. 1. March, 1623.

28. Stowe. See also Sir Walter Raleigh of the prerogatives of parliament, and Johnstone hist. lib. 18.

29. Stowe.

30. In the Harleyan miscellany, vol. iv. p. 255.

31. Rymer, tom. xvi. p. 717.

a better rank than at present, and approaching nearer to that of the officers.<sup>32</sup>

In the year 1583, there was a general review made of all the men in England capable of bearing arms; and these were found to amount to 1,172,000 men, according to Raleigh.<sup>33</sup> It is impossible to warrant the exactness of this computation; or rather, we may fairly presume it to be somewhat inaccurate. But, if it approached near the truth, England has probably, since that time, increased much in populousness. The growth of London, in riches and beauty, as well as numbers of inhabitants, has been prodigious. From 1600, it doubled every forty years;<sup>34</sup> and consequently in 1680, it contained four times as many inhabitants, as at the beginning of the century. It has ever been the center of all the trade in the kingdom; and almost the only town which affords society and amusement. The affection, which the English bear to a country life, makes the provincial towns be little frequented by the gentry. Nothing but the allurements of the capital, which is favored by the residence of the king, by being the seat of government, and of all the courts of law, can prevail over their passion for their rural villas.

London, at this time, was almost intirely built of wood, and in every respect, was certainly a very ugly city. The Earl of Arundel first introduced the practice of brick buildings.<sup>35</sup>

The navy of England was esteemed very formidable in Elizabeth's time, yet it consisted only of thirty three ships besides pinnaces:<sup>36</sup> And the largest of these would not

32. In older time, soldiers were still of a higher rank. The Duke of Clarence, son to Edward III, when Lord lieutenant of Ireland, had for the pay of his army these appointments. For himself thirteen shillings and four pence a-day, for his knights two shillings a piece, for his archers six pence. This last would now be equal to a crown a-day. Sir John Davies, p. 35. edit. 1745.

33. Of the invention of shipping.

34. Sir William Petty.

35. Sir Edward Walker's political discourses, p. 270.

36. Cokes inst. book iv. chap. 1. Consultation in parliament for the navy.

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equal our fourth rates at present. Raleigh advises never to build a ship of war above 600 tuns.<sup>37</sup> James was not negligent of the navy. In five years, preceding 1623, he built ten new ships, and expended fifty thousand pound a-year on the fleet, beside the value of thirty six thousand pound in timber, which he annually gave from the royal forrests.<sup>38</sup> The largest ship that ever had come from the English docks, was built during this reign. She was only 1400 tuns, and carried sixty four guns.<sup>39</sup> The merchant ships, in cases of necessity, were converted instantly into ships of war.

Every session of parliament, during this whole reign, we meet with grievous lamentations of the decay of trade and the growth of popery: Such violent propensity have men to complain of the present times, and to entertain discontents against their fortune and condition. The King himself was deceived by these popular complaints, and was at a loss to account for the total want of money, which he heard so much exaggerated<sup>40</sup>. It may however be affirmed, that, during no period of English history, was there a more sensible increase, than during the reign of this monarch, of all the advantages, which distinguish a flourishing people. Not only the peace, which he procured, was favorable to industry and commerce: His turn of mind inclined him to promote the peaceful arts: And trade being as yet in its infancy, all additions to it would be the more evident to every eye, which was not blinded by melancholy prejudices.<sup>41</sup>

37. By Raleigh's account in his discourse of the first invention of shipping, the fleet in the twenty fourth of the Queen, consisted only of thirteen ships, and were augmented afterwards eleven. He probably reckoned some pinnaces, which Coke called ships.

38. Journ. 11th of March 1623.

39. Stowe.

40. Rymer, tom. xvii. p. 413.

41. That of the honest historian Stowe seems not to have been of this number. 'The great blessings of God, says he, thro' increase of wealth in the common subjects of this land, especially upon the citizens of London; such within men's memory, and chiefly within these few years of peace, that, except there were now due mention of

By an account,<sup>42</sup> which seems judicious and accurate, it appears, that all the seamen, employed in the merchants service, amounted to 10,000 men, which probably exceeds not the sixth part of their present number. Sir Thomas Overbury says, that the Dutch possessed three times more shipping than the English, but that their ships were of inferior burden to those of the latter.<sup>43</sup>

A catalogue of the manufactures, for which the English were then eminent, would appear very contemptible, in comparison of those, which flourish among them at present. Almost all the more elaborate and curious arts were only cultivated abroad, particularly in Italy. Ship-building and founding of iron-cannon were the sole, in which the English excelled. They seem, indeed, to have possessed alone the secret of the latter; and great complaints were made every parliament against the exportation of English ordinance.

Nine tenths of the commerce of the kingdom consisted in woolen goods.<sup>44</sup> Wool, however, was allowed to be exported, till the 19th of the King. Its exportation was then forbid by proclamation; tho' that edict was never strictly executed. Most of the cloth was exported raw, and was

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some sort made thereof, it would in time to come be held incredible, &c.' In another place, 'Amongst the manifold tokens and signs of the infinite blessings of Almighty God bestowed upon this kingdom, by the wondrous and merciful establishing of peace within ourselves, and the full benefit of concord with all christian nations and others: Of all which graces let no man dare to presume he can speak too much; whereof in truth there can never be enough said, neither was there ever any people less considerate and less thankful than at this time, being not willing to endure the memory of their present happiness, as well in the universal increase of commerce and traffic thro'out the kingdom, great building of royal ships and by private merchants, the re-peopling of cities, towns and villages, beside the indiscernible and sudden increase of fair and costly buildings, as well within the city of London as the suburbs thereof, especially within these twelve years, &c.'

42. The trade's increase in the Harleyan misc. vol. ii. p. 349.

43. Remarks on his travels, Harl. misc. vol. ii. p. 349.

44. Journ. 26 May 1621.

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dyed and dressed by the Dutch; who gained, 'tis pretended, 700,000 pound a-year by this manufacture.<sup>45</sup> A prohibition, issued by the King, to export cloth in that condition, had succeeded so ill, during one year, by the refusal of the Dutch to buy the dressed cloth, that great murmurs arose against it; and this measure was retracted by the King, and complained of by the nation, as if it had been the most impolitic in the world. It seems indeed to have been premature.

In so little credit was the fine English cloth even at home, that the King was obliged to seek expedients, by which he might oblige the people of fashion to wear it.<sup>46</sup> The manufacture of fine linnen was totally unknown in the kingdom.<sup>47</sup>

The company of merchant-adventurers, by their patent, possessed the sole commerce of woolen goods, tho' the staple commodity of the nation. An attempt, made during the reign of Elizabeth, to lay open this important trade, had been attended with bad consequences for a time, by a conspiracy of the merchant-adventurers, not to make any purchases of cloth; and the Queen immediately restored them their patent.

They were groundless fears of a like accident, that enslaved the nation to those exclusive companies, which confined so much every branch of commerce and industry. The parliament, however, annulled, in the third of the King, the patent of the Spanish company; and the trade to Spain, which was, at first, very insignificant, soon became the most considerable in the kingdom. 'Tis strange, that they were not thence encouraged to abolish all the other companies, and that they went no farther than obliging them to enlarge their bottom, and to facilitate the entrance of new adventurers.

45. Journ. 20th May 1614. Raleigh, in his observations, computes the loss at 400,000 pound to the nation. There are about 80,000 undressed cloths, says he, transported yearly. He computes, besides that, about 100,000 pound a-year had been lost by kersies; not to mention other articles.

46. Rymer, tom. xvii. p. 415.

47. Id. ibid.

### *James I*

A board of trade was erected by the King in 1622.<sup>48</sup> One of the reasons, assigned in the commission, is to remedy the low price of wools, which begot complaints of the decay of the woolen manufactory. 'Tis more probable, however, that this fall of prices proceeded from the great increase of wool. The King likeways recommends it to the commissioners to inquire and examine, whether a greater freedom of trade and an exemption from the restraint of exclusive companies, would not be beneficial. Men were then imprisoned by their own prejudices; and the King was justly afraid of embracing a bold measure, whose consequences might be uncertain. The digesting of a navigation-act, of a like nature with the famous one executed afterwards by the republican parliament, is likeways recommended to the commissioners. The arbitrary powers, then commonly assumed by the privy council, appear evidently thro' the whole tenor of the commission.

The silk manufacture had no footing in England: But, by James's direction, mulberry-trees were planted, and silk-worms introduced.<sup>49</sup> The climate seems averse to the execution of this project.

Greenland is thought to have been discovered during this reign; and the whale-fishery was carried on with great success: But the industry of the Dutch, in spite of all opposition, soon deprived the English of this source of riches. A company was erected for the discovery of the north-west passage; and many fruitless attempts were made for that purpose. In such noble projects, despair ought never to be admitted, till the absolute impossibility of success be fully ascertained.

The passage to the East Indies had been opened to the English during the reign of Elizabeth; but the trade to those parts of the world was not fully established, till this reign, when the East India-company received a new patent, enlarged their stock to 1500,000 pound,<sup>50</sup> and set out several ships on these adventures. In 1609, they built a vessel of 1200 tun, the largest merchant-ship, which England had

48. Id. p. 410.

49. Stowe.

50. Journ. 26th Nov. 1621.

ever known. She was unfortunate, and perished by shipwreck. In 1611, a large ship of the company, assisted by a pinnace, maintained five several engagements with a squadron of Portuguese, and gained a compleat victory over forces much superior. During the following years, the Dutch company were guilty of great injuries towards the English, in expelling many of their factors, and destroying their settlements: But these violences were resented with a proper spirit by the court of England. A naval force was equipped under the Earl of Oxford,<sup>51</sup> and lay in wait for the return of the Dutch East India-fleet. By reason of cross winds, Oxford failed of his purpose, and the Dutch escaped. Some time after, one ship, full of riches, was taken by Vice-admiral Merwin; and it was stipulated by the Dutch to pay 70,000 pound to the English company, in consideration of the injuries, which that company had suffered.<sup>52</sup> But neither this stipulation, nor the fear of reprizals, nor the sense of that friendship, which subsisted betwixt England and the states, could refrain the avidity of the Dutch company, or render them equitable in their proceedings towards their allies. Impatient to have sole possession of the spice-trade, which the English then shared with them, they assumed a jurisdiction over a factory of the latter in the island of Amboyna; and under very improbable, and even absurd pretexts, seized all the factors with their families, and put them to death with the most inhuman tortures. This dismal news arrived in England at the time, when James, by the prejudices of his subjects and the intrigues of his favorite, was forced into a breach with Spain; and he was obliged, after some remonstrances, to acquiesce in this indignity from a state, whose alliance was now become necessary to him. 'Tis remarkable, that the nation, almost without a murmur, submitted to an injury from their protestant confederates; and to an injury, which, beside the horrid enormity of the action, was of much deeper importance to national interest, than all those which they were so impatient to resent from the house of Austria.

51. In 1622.

52. *Johnstoni. hist. lib. 19.*

What chiefly renders the reign of James memorable, is the commencement of the English colonies in America; colonies established on the noblest footing, that has been known in any age or nation. The Spaniards, being the first discoverers of the new world, immediately took possession of the precious mines, which they found there; and, by the allurement of great riches, they were tempted to depopulate their own country as well as that which they conquered; and added the vice of sloth to those of avidity and barbarity, which had attended their adventurers in those renowned interprizes. That fine coast was intirely neglected, which reaches from St Augustine to Cape Breton, and which lies in all the temperate climates, is watered by noble rivers, and offers a fertile soil, but nothing more, to the industrious planter. Peopled gradually from England by the necessitous and indigent, who, at home, increased neither wealth nor populousness, the colonies, which were planted along that tract, have promoted the navigation, encouraged the industry, and even multiplied the inhabitants of their mother-country. The spirit of independency, which was reviving in England, here shone forth in its full lustre, and received new accession of force from the aspiring character of those, who, being discontented with the established church and monarchy, had fought for freedom amid those savage desarts. The seeds of many a noble state have been sown in climates, kept desolate by the wild manners of the antient inhabitants; and as asylum secured, in that solitary world, for liberty and science, if ever the spreading of unlimited empire, or the inroad of barbarous nations, should again extinguish them in this turbulent and restless hemisphere.

Queen Elizabeth had done little more than given a name to the continent of Virginia; and after planting one feeble colony, which quickly decayed, that country was intirely abandoned. But when peace put an end to the war-like enterprizes against Spain, and left ambitious spirits no hopes of making any longer such rapid advances towards honor and fortune, the nation began to second the pacific

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intentions of its monarch, and to seek a surer, tho' slower expedient, for acquiring riches and glory. In 1606, Newport carried over a colony and began a settlement; which the company, erected by patent for that purppse in London and Bristol, took care to supply with yearly recruits of provisions, utensils, and new inhabitants. About 1609, Argal discovered a more direct and shorter passage to Virginia, and left the tract of the antient navigators, who had first directed their course southwards to the tropic, sailed westward by means of the trade-winds, and then turned northward, till they reached the English settlements. The same year, five hundred persons under Sir Thomas Gates and Sir George Somers were embarked for Virginia. Somers's ship, meeting with a tempest, was driven into Bermudas, and laid the foundation of a settlement in those islands. Lord Delawar afterwards undertook the government of the English colonies: But notwithstanding all his care, seconded by supplies from James, and by money raised from the first lottery ever known in the kingdom, such difficulties attended the settlement of these countries, that, in 1614, there were not alive more than 400 men, of all that had been sent thither. After supplying themselves with provisions more immediately requisite for the support of life, the new planters began the cultivating tobacco; and James, notwithstanding his antipathy to that drug, gave them permission to enter it in England; and he prohibited all importation from Spain.<sup>53</sup> By degrees, new colonies were established in that continent, and gave new names to the places where they settled, leaving that of Virginia to the province first planted.

Speculative reasoners, during that age, raised many objections to the planting those remote colonies; and foretold, that, after draining their mother-country of inhabitants, they would soon shake off her yoke, and erect an independent government in America: But time has shown, that the views, entertained by those who encouraged such generous undertakings, were more just and solid. A mild govern-

53. Rymer tom. xviii. p. 621, 633.

ment and great naval force have preserved, and may long preserve the dominion of England over her colonies. And such advantage have commerce and navigation reaped from these establishments, that more than half of the English shipping is at present computed to be employed in carrying on the traffic with the American settlements.

Agriculture was antiently very imperfect in England. The sudden transitions, so often mentioned by historians, from the lowest to the highest prices of grain, and the prodigious inequality of its value in different years, are sufficient proofs, that the produce depended intirely on the season, and that art had, as yet, done nothing to fence against the injuries of the heavens. During this reign, considerable improvements were made, as in most arts, so in this, the most beneficial of any. A numerous catalogue might be formed of books and pamphlets, treating of husbandry, which were wrote about this time. The nation, however, was still dependant on foreigners for daily bread; and tho' its exportation of grain now forms a considerable branch of its commerce, notwithstanding its increase of people, there was, at that time, a regular import from the Baltic; and if ever it stopped, the bad consequences were very sensibly felt by the nation. Sir Walter Raleigh in his observations computes, that two millions went out at one time for corn. It was not till the fifth of Elizabeth, that the exportation of corn had ever been allowed in England; and Cambden observes, that agriculture, from that moment, received new life and vigor.

The endeavours of James, or more properly speaking, those of the nation, for the promotion of trade, were attended with greater success than those for the encouragement of learning. Tho' the age was by no means destitute of eminent writers, a very bad taste in general prevailed during that period; and the monarch himself was not a little infected with it.

On the first origin of letters among the Greeks, the genius of poets and orators, as might naturally be expected, was distinguished by an amiable simplicity, which, whatever

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rudeness might sometimes attend it, is so fitted to express the genuine movements of nature and passion, that the compositions, possessed of it, must for ever appear valuable to the discerning part of mankind. The glaring figures of discourse, the pointed antithesis, the unnatural conceit, the jingle of words; such false ornaments are not employed by early writers; not because they were rejected, but because they scarce ever occurred to them. An easy, unforced strain of sentiment runs thro' their compositions; tho' at the same time we may observe, that, amid the most elegant simplicity of thought and expression, one is sometimes surprised to meet with a poor conceit, which had presented itself unsought for, and which the author had not acquired critical observation enough to condemn.<sup>54</sup> A bad taste seizes with avidity these frivolous beauties, and even perhaps a good taste, 'ere furfeited by them: They multiply every day more and more, in the fashionable compositions: Nature and good sense are neglected: Laboured ornaments, studied and admired: And a total degeneracy of style and language prepares the way for barbarism and ignorance. Hence the Asiatic manner was found to depart so much from the simple purity of Athens: Hence that tinsel eloquence, which is observable in many of the Roman writers, from which Cicero himself is not wholly exempted, and which so much prevails in Ovid, Seneca, Lucan, Martial, and the Plinys.

On the revival of letters, when the judgment of the public is, as yet, raw and unformed, this false glister catches the eye, and leaves no room, either in eloquence or poetry,

54. The name of Polynices, one of Oedipus's sons, means in the original *much quarrelling*. In the altercations betwixt the two brothers, in Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, this conceit is employed; and 'tis remarkable, that so poor a conundrum could not be rejected by any of these three poets; so justly celebrated for their taste and simplicity. What could Shakespear have done worse? Terence has his *inceptio est amentium, non amantium*. Many similar instances will occur to the learned. 'Tis well known, that Aristotle treats very seriously of puns, divides them into several classes, and recommends the use of them to orators.

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for the durable beauties of solid sense and lively passion. The reigning genius is then diametrically opposite to that which prevails on the first origin of arts. The Italian writers, 'tis evident, even the most celebrated, have not reached the proper simplicity of thought and composition; and in Petrarch, Tasso, Guarini, frivolous witticisms and forced conceits are but too predominant. The period, during which letters were cultivated in Italy, was so short as scarce to allow leisure for correcting this adulterated relish.

The more early French writers are liable to the same reproach. Voiture, Balzac, even Corneille, have too much affected those ambitious ornaments, of which the Italians in general, and the least pure of the antients, supplied them with so many models. And 'twas not till late, that observation and reflection gave rise to a more natural turn of thought and composition among that elegant people.

A like character may be extended to the first English writers; such as flourished during the reign of Elizabeth and James, and was even till long afterwards. Learning, on its revival, in this island, was attired in the same unnatural garb, which it wore at the time of its decay among the Greeks and Romans. And, what may be regarded as a misfortune, the English writers were possessed of great genius before they were endued with any degree of taste, and by that means gave a kind of sanction to those forced turns and sentiments, which they so much affected. Their distorted conceptions are attended with such vigor of mind, that we admire the imagination, which produced them; as much as we blame the want of judgment, which gave them admittance. To enter into an exact criticism of the writers of that age would exceed our present purpose. A short character of the most eminent, delivered with the same freedom, which history exercises over kings and ministers, may not be improper. The national prepossessions, which prevail, may perhaps render the former liberty not the least perilous for an author.

If Shakespeare be considered as a Man, born in a rude age, and educated in the lowest manner, without any in-

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struction, either from the world or from books, he may be regarded as a prodigy: If represented as a Poet, capable of furnishing a proper entertainment to a refined or intelligent audience, we must abate somewhat of this eulogy. In his compositions, we regret, that great irregularities, and even sometimes absurdities should so frequently disfigure the animated and passionate scenes intermixt with them; and at the same time, we perhaps admire the more those beauties, on account of their being surrounded with such deformities. A striking peculiarity of sentiment, adapted to a singular character, he frequently hits, as it were by inspiration; but a reasonable propriety of thought he cannot, for any time, uphold. Nervous and picturesque expressions as well as descriptions, abound in him; but 'tis in vain we look either for continued purity or simplicity of diction. His total ignorance of all theatrical art and conduct, however material a defect; yet, as it affects the spectator rather than the reader, we can more readily excuse, than that want of taste, which often prevails in his productions, and which gives way, only by intervals, to the irradiations of genius. A great and fertile genius he certainly possessed, and one enriched equally with a tragic and comic vein; but, he ought to be cited as a proof, how dangerous it is to rely on these advantages alone for the attaining an excellence in the finer arts.<sup>55</sup> And there may even remain a suspicion, that we over-rate, if possible, the greatness of his genius; in the same manner as bodies often appear more gigantic, on account of their being disproportioned and mishapen. He died in 1617, aged 53 years.

Johnson possessed all the learning, which was wanting to Shakespeare, and wanted all the genius, of which the other was possessed. Both of them were equally deficient in taste and elegance, in harmony and correctness. A servile copist of the antients, Johnson translated into bad English, the beautiful passages of the Greek and Roman authors, without accommodating them to the manners of his age

55. *Invenire etiam barbari solent, disponere et ornare non nisi eruditus.* PLIN.

and country. His merit has been totally eclipsed by that of Shakespeare, whose rude genius prevailed over the rude art of his cotemporary. The English theatre has ever since taken a strong tincture of Shakespeare's spirit and character; and thence it has proceeded, that the nation have undergone, from all their neighbors, the reproach of barbarism, from which their many valuable productions in other parts of learning, would otherways have exempted them. Johnson had a pension of a hundred marks from the King, which Charles afterwards augmented to a hundred pounds. He died in 1637, aged 63.

Fairfax has translated Tasso with an elegance and ease, and, at the same time, with an exactness, which, for that age, are surprizing. Each line in the original is faithfully rendered by a correspondent line in the translation. Harrington's translation of Ariosto is not likeways without its merit. 'Tis to be regretted, that these poets should have imitated the Italians in their stanza, which has a prolixity and uniformity in it, that displeases in long performances. They had otherways, as well as Spencer, who went before them, contributed much to the polishing and refining the English versification.

In Donne's satyres, when carefully inspected, there appear some flashes of wit and ingenuity; but these totally suffocated and buried by the harshest and most uncouth expression, which is any where to be met with.

If the poetry of the English was so rude and imperfect during that age, we may reasonably expect, that their prose would be liable to still greater objections. Tho' the latter appears the more easy, as it is the more natural method of composition; it has ever in practice been found the more rare and difficult; and there scarce is an instance, in any language, that it has reached a degree of perfection, before the refinement of poetical numbers and expression. English prose, during the reign of James, was wrote with little regard to the rules of grammar, and with a total disregard of the elegance and harmony of the period. Stuffed with Latin sentences and citations, it likeways imitated those

inversions, which, however forcible and graceful in the antient languages, are intirely contrary to the idiom of the English. I shall indeed venture to affirm, that, whatever uncouth phrases and expressions occur in old books, they were owing chiefly to the unformed taste of the author; and that the language, spoke in the courts of Elizabeth and James, was very little different from that which, in good company, we meet with at present. Of this opinion, the little scraps of speeches, which are found in the parliamentary journals, and which carry an air so opposite to the labored orations, seem to be a sufficient proof; and there want not productions of that age, which, being wrote by men, who were not authors by profession, retain a very natural manner, and may give us some idea of the language, which prevailed in polite conversation. I shall particularly mention Sir John Davis's discovery.

The great glory of literature in this island, during the reign of James, was my Lord Bacon. Most of his performances were composed in Latin; tho' he possessed, neither the elegance of that, nor of his native tongue. If we consider the variety of talents enjoyed by this man; as a public speaker, a man of business, a wit, a courtier, a companion, an author, a philosopher; he is justly the object of great admiration. If we consider him merely as an author and philosopher, the light, in which we view him at present, tho' very estimable, he was yet much inferior to his cotemporary Galilaeo, perhaps even to Kepler. Bacon pointed out at a distance the road to true philosophy: Galilaeo both pointed it out to others, and made, himself, considerable advances in it. The Englishman was ignorant of geometry: The Florentine revived that science, excelled in it, and was the first, who applied it, along with experiment, to natural philosophy. The former rejected, with the most positive disdain, the system of Copernicus: The latter fortified it with new proofs, derived both from reason and the senses. Bacon's style is stiff and rigid: His wit, tho' sometimes brilliant, is, in general, unnatural and far fetcht; and he seems to be the original of those pointed similes and

long-spun allegories, which so much distinguish the English authors: Galilaeo is a lively and agreeable, tho' somewhat a prolix writer. But Italy, not united in any single government, and perhaps satiated with that literary glory, which it has possessed both in antient and modern times, has too much neglected the renown, which it has acquired by giving birth to so great a man. That national spirit, which prevails among the English, and which forms their great happiness, is the cause, why they accompany all their eminent writers, and Bacon among the rest, with praises and acclamations, which may often appear partial and excessive. He died in 1626, in the 66th year of his age.

If the reader of Raleigh's history can have the patience to wade thro' the Jewish and Rabinical learning, which compose the half of the volume, he will find, when he comes to the Greek and Roman story, that his pains are not unrewarded. Raleigh is the best model of that antient style, which some writers would affect to revive at present. He was beheaded in 1618, aged 66 years.

Camden's history of Queen Elizabeth may be esteemed good composition, both for the style and the matter. It is wrote with simplicity of expression, very rare in that age, and with a regard to truth. It would not perhaps be too much to affirm, that it is among the best historical productions, which have yet been composed by any Englishman. 'Tis well known, that the English have not much excelled in that kind of literature. He died in 1618, aged 67 years.

We shall mention the King at the end of the English writers; because that is *his* place, when considered as an author. It may safely be affirmed, that the mediocrity of James's talent in literature, joined to the great change in national taste, is the chief cause of that contempt, under which his memory labors, and which is often carried, by party-writers, to a great extreme. 'Tis remarkable, how different from ours were the sentiments of the antients with regard to learning. Of the first twenty Roman emperors counting from Caesar to Severus, above the half were authors; and tho' few of them seem to have been eminent

in that profession, it is always remarked to their praise, that, by their example, they encouraged literature. Not to mention Germanicus, and his daughter, Agrippina, persons so nearly allied to the throne, the greater part of the classic writers, whose works remain, were men of the highest quality. As every human advantage is attended with inconveniences, the change of men's ideas in this particular may probably be ascribed to the invention of printing; which has rendered books so common, that even men of slender fortunes can have access to them.

That James was but a midling writer may be allowed: That he was a contemptible one can by no means be admitted. Whoever will read his *Basilicon Doron*, particularly the two last books, the true law of free monarchies, his answer to Cardinal Perron, and almost all his speeches and messages to parliament, will confess him to have possessed no mean genius. If he wrote concerning witches and apparitions; who, in that age, did not admit the reality of these fictitious beings? If he has composed a commentary on the *Revelations*, and proved the Pope to be Antichrist; may not a familiar reproach be extended to the famous Napier; and even to Newton, at a time when learning was much more advanced than during the reign of James? From the grossness of its superstitions, we may infer the ignorance of an age; but never should pronounce concerning the folly of an individual, from his admitting popular errors, consecrated with the appearance of religion.

Such an infinite superiority do the pursuits of literature possess above every other human occupation, that even he, who attains but a mediocrity in them, deserves the pre-eminence above those who excel the most in the common and vulgar professions. The speaker of the house is commonly an eminent man; yet the harangue of his Majesty we shall always find superior to that of the speaker, in every parliament during this reign.

Every science, as well as polite literature, must be considered as being yet in its infancy. Scholastic learning and polemical divinity retarded the growth of all true know-

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ledge. Sir Henry Saville, in the preamble of that deed, by which he fixed a salary to the mathematical and astronomical professors in Oxford, says, that geometry was almost totally abandoned and unknown in England.<sup>56</sup> The best learning of that age was the study of the antients. Casaubon, eminent for this knowlege, was invited over from France by James, and encouraged by a pension of 300 a-year, as well as by church preferments.<sup>57</sup> The famous Antonio di Dominis Archbishop of Spalato, no despicable philosopher, came likeways into England, and afforded great triumph to the nation, by their gaining so considerable a proselyte from the papists. But the mortification followed soon after. For the Archbishop, tho' advanced to some ecclesiastical preferments,<sup>58</sup> received not encouragement, sufficient to satisfy his ambition, and made his escape into Italy, where, soon after, he died in confinement.

56. Rymer tom. xvii. p. 217. 57. Id. p. 709. 58. Id. p. 95.



THE  
HISTORY  
OF  
GREAT BRITAIN  
CHARLES I

CHAP. I

*A parliament at Westminster – At Oxford – Naval expedition against Spain – Second parliament – Impeachment of Buckingham – Violent measures of the court – War with France – Expedition to the isle of Rhé*

No sooner had Charles taken into his hands the reins of government, than he marked an impatience to assemble the great council of the nation; and he would gladly, for the sake of dispatch, have called together the same parliament, which had sat under his father, and which lay, at that time, under prorogation. But, being told, that this measure would appear unusual, he issued writs for the summoning a new parliament on the 7th May; and it was not without regret, that the arrival of the Princess Henrietta, whom he had espoused by proxy, obliged him to delay, by repeated prorogations, their meeting till the eighteenth of June, when they assembled at Westminster for the dispatch of business. The young Prince, unexperienced and impolitic, regarded as sincere all the praises and caresses, with which he had been loaded, while active in procuring the rupture with the house of Austria. And, beside that he labored under great necessities, he hastened with alacrity to a period, when he might receive the most undoubted testimonies of the dutiful

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attachment of his subjects. His discourse to the parliament was full of simplicity and cordiality. He lightly mentioned the occasion, which he had for supply. He employed no intrigue to engage the suffrages of the members. He would not even allow the officers of the crown, who had seats in the house, to mention any particular sum, which might be expected by the King. Secure of the affections of the commons, he was resolved, that their bounty should be intirely their own deed; unasked, unsolicited; the genuine fruit of sincere confidence and regard.

The house of commons accordingly took into consideration the business of supply. They knew, that all the money, granted by the last parliament, had been expended on naval and military armaments; and that great anticipations were likeways made on the revenues of the crown. They were not ignorant, that Charles was loaded with a large debt, contracted by his father, who had borrowed money, both from his own subjects and from foreign princes. They had learned by experience, that the public revenues could with difficulty maintain the dignity of the crown, even under the ordinary charges of government. They were sensible, that the present war was, very lately, the result of their own importunate applications and entreaties, and that they had solemnly engaged to support their sovereign in the management of it. They were acquainted with the difficulty of military interprizes, directed against the whole house of Austria; against the King of Spain, possessed of the greatest riches and most extensive dominions of any prince in the world; against the Emperor Ferdinand, hitherto the most fortunate monarch of his age, who had subdued and astonished Germany by the rapidity of his victories. Deep impressions, they saw, must be made by the English sword, and a vigorous offensive war be waged against these mighty potentates, 'ere they would resign a principality, which they had now fully subdued, and which they held in secure possession, by its being surrounded with all their other territories.

To answer, therefore, all these great and important ends;

to satisfy their young King in the first request, which he ever made them; to prove their sense of the many royal virtues, particularly oeconomy, with which Charles was endued; the house of commons, conducted by the wisest and ablest senators, that had ever flourished in England; thought proper to confer on the King a supply of two subsidies, amounting to 112,000 pound.<sup>1</sup>

This measure, which marks rather a cruel mockery of Charles, than any serious design of supporting him, appears so extraordinary, when considered in all its circumstances, that it naturally summons up our attention, and raises inquiry concerning the causes of a conduct, unprecedented in an English parliament. So numerous an assembly, composed of persons of various dispositions, were not, 'tis probable, influenced, all of them, by the same motives; and few declared openly their true reason. We shall, therefore, approach nearer the truth, if we mention all the views, which the present conjuncture could suggest to them.

It is not to be doubted, that spleen and ill-will against the Duke of Buckingham had a strong effect with many. So vast and rapid a fortune, so little merited, could not fail to excite public envy; and, however men's hatred might have been suspended for a moment, while the Duke's conduct seemed to gratify their passions and their prejudices, it was impossible for him long to preserve the affections of the people. His influence over the modesty of Charles exceeded even that which he had acquired over the weakness of James; nor was any public measure conducted but by his counsel and direction. His impetuous temper prompted him to raise suddenly, to the highest elevation, his flatterers and dependants: And, upon the least occasion of displeasure, he threw them down with equal fury and violence. Implacable in his hatred; fickle in his friendship: All men were either regarded as his enemies, or dreaded soon to become such. The whole power of the kingdom was grasped by his in-

1. A subsidy was now fallen to about 56,000 pound. Cabbala, p. 224. first edit.

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satisfiable hand; while he both engrossed the intire confidence of his master, and held, invested in his single person, the most considerable offices of the crown.

But the public hatred against Buckingham acquired new force, by the discoveries, which were every day made, of his imprudent conduct in Spain, and perhaps of the falsehoods, which he had dared to impose upon the parliament. The King himself having borne testimony to Buckingham's narrative, could not fail to be exposed, in some degree, to the blame, which fell upon his favorite; tho' all those, who judged with candor, were inclined to think, that he had, himself, been first deceived, 'ere he contributed to deceive others. No wonder, that resentment was kindled in such as were sensible of so bold an imposture, and that they deserted the measures, which they had formerly pursued; without considering, that, if the war was ever adviseable upon political motives, it ought still, notwithstanding any such discovery, to be pursued, with equal vigor and activity. The parliament had supposed it practicable to wrest the Palatinate from the house of Austria; they had represented it as prudent to expend the blood and treasure of the nation on such an enterprize; they had believed that the King of Spain never had any sincere intention of restoring that principality. 'Tis certain, that he had not now any such intention: And tho' there was reason to suspect, that this alteration of his views had proceeded from the ill-conduct of Buckingham, yet past errors could not be retrieved; and the nation was undoubtedly in the same situation, which the parliament had ever supposed, when they so much harrassed their sovereign, by their impatient, importunate, and even undutiful sollicitations.

However the ill-humor of the commons might have been increased by these considerations, we are not to suppose them the sole motives. The last parliament of James, amid all their joy and festivity, had given him a supply very disproportioned to his demand and to the occasion. And, as every house of commons, who were elected during forty years, succeeded to all the passions and principles of their

predecessors; we ought rather to account for this obstinacy from the general situation of the kingdom during that whole period, than from any circumstances, which attended this immediate conjuncture.

The nation were very little accustomed, at that time, to the burthens and had never opened their purses, in any degree, for the supplying their sovereign. Habits, more than reason, we find, in every thing, to be the governing principle of mankind. In this view likeways the sinking of the value of subsidies must be considered as a loss to the King. The parliament, swayed by custom, would not augment their number in the same proportion.

The puritanical party, tho' disguised, had a very great authority over the kingdom; and many of the leaders among the commons had secretly embraced the rigid tenets of the sect. All these were disgusted with the court, both by reason of the principles of civil liberty, essential to their party, and on account of the restraint, under which they were held by the established hierarchy. In order to fortify himself against the resentment of James, Buckingham had affected popularity, and entered into the cabals of the puritans: But, being secure of the confidence of Charles, he had since abandoned that party; and, on that account, was the more exposed to their hatred and resentment. Tho' the religious schemes of the puritans, when explained, appear, many of them, pretty frivolous, we are not thence to imagine, that they were pursued by none but fools. Many men of the greatest parts and most extensive knowledge, whom the nation, at that time, produced, could not enjoy any peace of mind; because obliged to hear prayers offered up to the Divinity, by a priest, covered with a white linnen vestment.

The match with France and the articles in favor of catholics, which were suspected to be in the treaty, were likeways causes of disgust to this whole party: Tho' it must be remarked, that the alliance with that crown was infinitely less obnoxious to the protestants, and less favorable to the catholics, than that formerly projected with Spain,

and was therefore received rather with pleasure than dissatisfaction.

To all these causes we must yet add another of considerable moment. The house of commons, we may observe, were almost intirely governed by a set of men of the most uncommon capacity and the largest views: men, who were now formed into a regular party, and united, as well by fixed aims and projects, as by the hardships, which they had, many of them, undergone in prosecution of them. Among these we may mention the names of Sir Edward Coke, Sir Edwin Sandys, Sir Robert Philips, Sir Francis Seymour, Sir Dudley Diggs, Sir John Elliot, Sir Thomas Wentworth, Mr Selden, Mr Pym. Animated with a warm regard to liberty, these men saw, with regret, an unbounded power exercised by the crown, and were resolved to seize the opportunity, which the King's necessities offered them, to reduce the prerogative within more reasonable compass. Tho' their ancestors had blindly given way to practices and precedents favorable to kingly power, and had been able, notwithstanding, to preserve some remains of liberty; it would be impossible, they thought, when all these pretensions were methodized and prosecuted by the increasing knowlege of the age, to maintain any shadow of popular government, in opposition to such unlimited authority in the sovereign. 'Twas necessary to fix a choice: Either to abandon intirely the privileges of the people, or to secure them by firmer and more precise barriers than the constitution had hitherto provided for them. In this dilemma, men of such aspiring genius and such independent fortune could not long deliberate: They generously embraced the side of freedom, and resolved to grant no supplies to their necessitous Prince, without extorting concessions in favor of civil liberty. The end, they esteemed beneficent and noble: The means, regular and constitutional. To grant or refuse supplies was the undoubted privilege of the commons. And as all human governments, particularly those of a mixed frame, are in continual fluctuation; it was as natural, in their opinion, and allowable, for popular assemblies to take advantage of

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favorable incidents, in order to secure the subjects; as for monarchs, in order to extend their own authority. With pleasure, they beheld the King involved in a foreign war, which rendered him, every day, more dependent on the parliament; while, at the same time, the situation of the kingdom, even without any military preparations, gave it sufficient security against all invasion from foreigners. And perhaps, it had partly proceeded from expectations of this nature, that popular leaders had been so urgent for a rupture with Spain; nor is it credible, that religious zeal could so far have blinded all of them as to make them find, in such a measure, any appearance of necessity or any hopes of success.

But, however natural all these sentiments might appear to the country-party, it is not to be imagined, that Charles would entertain the same ideas. Strongly prejudiced in favor of the Duke, whom he had heard so highly extolled in parliament, he could not conjecture the cause of so sudden an alteration in their opinions. And when the war, which they themselves had so earnestly sollicited, was, at last, commenced, the immediate desertion of their sovereign could not but seem very strange and unaccountable. Even tho' no farther motive had been suspected, the refusal of supply, in such circumstances, would naturally to him appear cruel and deceitful: But, when he perceived that this measure proceeded from an intention of encroaching on his authority, he failed not to regard these aims as highly criminal and traitorous. Those lofty ideas of monarchical power; which were very commonly adopted during that age, and to which the ambiguous nature of the English constitution gave so plausible an appearance, were firmly rivetted in Charles; and however moderate his temper, the natural illusions of self-love, joined to his education under James, and to the flattery of courtiers and church-men, had represented his political tenets as certain and uncontroverted. Taught to regard even the antient laws and constitution more as lines to direct his conduct than barriers to withstand his power; a conspiracy to erect new ramparts, in order to straiten his authority, appeared but one degree removed

from open violence and rebellion. So atrocious in his eyes was such a design, that he seems even unwilling to impute it to the commons: And, tho' he was obliged to adjourn the parliament by reason of the plague, which, at that time, raged in London; he immediately assembled them at Oxford, and made a new attempt to gain from them some supplies in such an urgent necessity.

Charles now found himself obliged to depart from that delicacy, which he had formerly affected. By himself or his ministers, he entered into a particular detail, both of the alliances, which he had formed, and of the military operations, which he had projected. He told the parliament, That, by a promise of subsidies, he had engaged the King of Denmark to take part in the war; that that monarch intended to enter Germany by the north, and to animate those princes, who impatiently longed for an opportunity of asserting the liberty of the empire; that Mansfeldt had undertaken to penetrate with an English army into the Palatinate, and by that quarter to rouze from their lethargy the members of the evangelical union; that the state must be supported in the unequal warfare, which they maintained with Spain; that no less a sum than 700,000 pound a-year had been found, by computation, requisite for all these purposes; that the maintenance of the fleet and the defence of Ireland demanded an annual expence of 400,000 pound; that he himself had already exhausted and anticipated, in the public service his whole revenue, and had scarce left sufficient for the daily subsistence of himself and of his family; that, on his accession to the crown, he found a debt of above 300,000 pound, contracted by his father, in support of the Palatine; and that, while Prince of Wales, he had indebted himself, notwithstanding his great frugality, to the extent of 100,000 pound, which he had expended intirely on naval and military armaments. After mentioning all these facts, the King even condescended to entreaties. He said, that this was the first request, which he had ever made them; that he was young and in the commencement of his reign; and, if he now met with kind and dutiful usage, it would

endear to him the use of parliaments, and would, for ever, preserve an intire harmony betwixt him and his people.

To these reasons the commons remained inexorable. Notwithstanding that the King's measures, on the supposition of a foreign war, which they had ever demanded, were altogether unexceptionable, they obstinately refused any farther assistance. Some members, favorable to the court, having insisted on an addition of two fifteenths to the former supply, even this small pittance was denied; tho' it was known, that a fleet and army were lying at Portsmouth, in great want of pay and provisions. Beside all their other motives, the house of commons had made a new discovery, which enflamed them extremely against the court and against the Duke of Buckingham.

When James deserted the Spanish alliance, and courted that of France, he had promised to furnish Louis, who was intirely destitute of naval force, with one ship of war, and seven armed vessels, hired from the merchants. These the French court had pretended they should employ against the Genoese, who, being firm and useful allies to the Spanish monarchy, were naturally regarded with an evil eye, both by the King of France and of England. When these vessels, by Charles's order, arrived at Diepe, there arose a strong suspicion, that they were to serve against Rochelle. The sailors were enflamed. That race of men, who are at present both careless and ignorant in all matters of religion, were, at that time, only ignorant. They drew up a remonstrance to Pennington, their commander; and, signing all their names in a circle, lest he should discover the ringleaders, they laid it under his prayer-book. Pennington declared, that he would rather be hanged in England for disobedience, than fight against his brother-protestants in France. The whole squadron sailed immediately to the Downs. There, they received new orders from Buckingham, Lord high admiral, to return to Diepe. As the Duke knew, that authority alone would not suffice, he employed much art and many subtilties, to engage them to obedience; and a rumor, which was spread, that peace had been concluded

betwixt the French King and the hugonots, assisted him in his purpose. When arrived at Diepe, they found that they had been deceived. Sir Ferdinando Gorges, who commanded one of the vessels, broke thro' and returned to England. All the officers and sailors of all the other ships, notwithstanding great offers made them by the French, immediately deserted. One miserable gunner alone preferred duty towards his King to the cause of religion; and he was afterwards killed in charging a cannon before Rochelle. The care, which historians have taken to record this frivolous event, shows with what pleasure it was received by the whole nation.

The house of commons, when informed of the transactions, had the honor of showing a zeal for the protestant religion, not inferior to that of the sailors. It was not considered, that, if the force of Spain was really so exorbitant as they imagined, the French monarch was the only prince, who could oppose its progress, and preserve the ballance of Europe; that his power was at present fettered by the hugonots, who being possessed of many privileges and even of fortified towns, formed an empire within his empire, and kept him in perpetual jealousy and inquietude; that an insurrection had been, at that time, wantonly and voluntarily, formed by their leaders, who being disgusted in some court-intrigue, took advantage of the never failing pretext of religion, in order to cover their rebellion; that the Dutch, influenced by these views, had ordered a squadron of twenty ships to join the French fleet, employed against the inhabitants of Rochelle; that the Spanish monarch, sensible of the same consequences, secretly supported the protestants in France; and that all princes had ever sacrificed, to reasons of state, the interest of their religion in foreign countries. All these obvious considerations had no influence. Great murmurs and discontents still prevailed in parliament. And it plainly appears, from this incident as well as from many others, that, of all European nations, the British were, at that time, and till long after, sunk into the lowest and most odious bigotry.

## *Charles I*

On this occasion, the commons renewed their eternal complaints against the growth of popery, which was the chief of their grievances, and now their only one. They demanded a strict execution of the penal laws against the catholics, and remonstrated against some late pardons which had been granted to priests. They attacked Montague, one of the King's chaplains, on account of a moderate book, which he had lately composed, and which, to the great disgust of the commons and all good protestants, saved virtuous catholics, as well as other christians, from eternal torments. Charles gave them a gracious and a compliant answer to all their remonstrances. He was, however, in his heart, extremely averse to these furious measures. Tho' a determined protestant, by principle as well as inclination, he had entertained no violent horror against popery; and a little humanity, he thought, was due by the nations to the religion of their ancestors. That degree of liberty, which is now indulged to catholics, tho' a party much more obnoxious than during the reign of the Stuarts; it suited neither with Charles's sentiments, nor the humor of the age, to allow them. An abatement of the more rigorous laws was all he intended; and his engagements with France, tho' their regular execution had never been proposed nor expected, required of him some indulgence. But so unfortunate was this Prince, that no measure, embraced during his whole reign, was ever attended with more unhappy and more fatal consequences.

The extreme rage against popery was a sure characteristic of puritanism. This house of commons discovered other infallible symptoms of the prevalence of that party. They petitioned the King for replacing such able clergy as had been silenced for want of conformity to the ceremonies. They also enacted laws for the strict observance of sunday, which the puritans affected to call the sabbath, and which they sanctified by the most melancholy indolence. 'Tis to be remarked, that the different appellations of this festival were, at that time, known symbols of the different parties. This is a difference about a few unmeaning syllables: But

as the controversy betwixt the church and the puritans did not altogether regard theological dogmas, but involved a dispute concerning ecclesiastical, as well as civil power and government; that controversy must be allowed, in some of its articles, to have been of much greater importance.

The King, finding that the parliament were resolved to grant him no supply, and would furnish him with nothing but empty protestations of duty, or disagreeable complaints of grievances; took advantage of the plague, which began to appear at Oxford, and, under that pretext, immediately dissolved them. By finishing the session with a dissolution, instead of a prorogation, he sufficiently marked his displeasure at their conduct.

To supply the want of parliamentary aids, Charles issued privy seals for borrowing money from his subjects. The advantage reaped by this levy was a small compensation for the ill-will, occasioned by it. By means, however, of that supply, and by other expedients, he was, tho' with difficulty, enabled to equip his fleet. It consisted of eighty vessels, great and small; and carried on board an army of 10,000 men. Sir Edward Cecil, lately created Viscount Wimbleton, was entrusted with the command. He sailed immediately for Cadiz, and found the bay full of Spanish ships of great value. To attack these was either neglected or attempted preposterously. The army was landed, and a fort taken: but the undisciplined soldiers, finding store of wine, could not be restrained from the utmost excesses. Farther stay appearing fruitless, they were re-imbarked; and the fleet put to sea with an intention of waiting for the Spanish gallions. But the plague having seized the seamen and soldiers, they were obliged to abandon all hopes of this prize, and return to England. Loud complaints were made against the court for entrusting so important a command to a man like Cecil, who, tho' of great experience, the people judging by the event, esteemed of very slender capacity.

Charles, having failed of so rich a prize, was obliged again to have recourse to a parliament. Tho' the ill success

of his enterprizes diminished his authority, and showed, every day, more plainly the folly of the Spanish war; tho' the increase of his necessities rendered him more dependant, and more exposed to the encroachments of the commons; he was resolved to try once more that regular and constitutional expedient for supply. Perhaps too, a little political trick, which at that time he practised, was much trusted to. Sir Edward Coke, Sir Robert Philips, Sir Thomas Wentworth, Sir Francis Seymour, all of them popular leaders, the King had named for sheriffs in the counties, and had, by that means, incapacitated them for being elected members. But this affectation, being so evident, rather put the commons more upon their guard. Enow of patriots still remained to keep up the ill humor of the house; and men needed but little instuction or rhetoric to recommend to them practices, which increased their own importance and consideration. The weakness of the court too could not more evidently appear, than by its being reduced to so poor an expedient, in order to obtain an influence on the commons.

The views, therefore, of the last parliament were immediately adopted; as if the same men had been every where elected, and no time had interposed since their last meeting. When the King laid before the house his necessities, and asked for supply, they immediately voted him three subsidies and three fifteenths; and tho' they afterwards added one subsidy more, the sum was little proportioned to the greatness of the occasion, and ill fitted to promote those views of success and glory, for which the young Prince, in his first enterprize, so ardently longed. But this circumstance was not the most disagreeable one. The supply was only voted by the commons. The passing that vote into a law was reserved till the end of the session. A condition was thereby made, in a very undisguised manner, with their sovereign. Under pretext of redressing grievances, which, during this short reign, could not be very numerous; they were to proceed in regulating and controlling every part of government, which displeased them: And, if the King either cut them short in this undertaking or refused compliance

with their demands, he must lay his account with the want of all supply. Great dissatisfaction was expressed by Charles at a method of treatment, which he esteemed so harsh and undutiful: But his urgent necessities obliged him to submit; and he waited with patience, observing to what side they would turn themselves.

The Duke of Buckingham, formerly obnoxious to the public, became every day more odious, by the symptoms, which appeared, both of his want of temper and prudence, and of the uncontrololed ascendant, which he had acquired over his master. Two violent attacks he was obliged this session to sustain; one from the Earl of Bristol, another from the house of commons.

As long as James lived, Bristol, secure of the concealed favor of that monarch, had expressed all duty and obedience; in expectation, that an opportunity would offer of reinstating himself in his former credit and authority. Even after Charles's accession, he despaired not. He submitted to the King's order of remaining in his country-seat, and of absenting himself from parliament. Many trials he made to regain the good opinion of his master; but finding them all fruitless, and observing Charles to be intirely governed by Buckingham, his implacable enemy, he resolved no longer to keep any measures with the court. A new spirit, he saw, and a new power, arising in the nation; and to these he was resolved, for the future, to trust for his security and protection.

When the parliament was summoned, Charles, by a great stretch of prerogative, had given orders, that no writ, as is customary, should be sent to Bristol. That Nobleman applied to the house of lords by petition; and craved their good offices with the King for obtaining what was his due as a peer of the realm. His writ was sent him; but accompanied with a letter from the Lord Keeper, Coventry, commanding him, in the King's name, to absent himself from parliament. This letter Bristol conveyed to the lords, and asked advice how to proceed in so delicate a situation. The King's prohibition was withdrawn, and Bristol took his

seat. Provoked at these repeated instances of vigor, which the court denominated contumacy, Charles ordered his attorney-general to enter an accusation of high treason against him. By way of recrimination, Bristol impeached Buckingham of high treason. The Earl's defence of himself and accusation of the Duke both remain; and, when joined to original letters, contain the fullest and most authentic account of all the negotiations with the house of Austria. From the whole, the great imprudence of the Duke evidently appears, and the sway of his ungovernable passions; but it would be difficult to collect thence any action, which, in the eye of the law, could be deemed a crime; much less could subject him to the penalty of high treason.

The impeachment of the commons was still less dangerous to the Duke, were it estimated by the standard of law and equity. They accused him, of having united many offices in his person; of having bought two of them; of neglecting to guard the seas, insomuch that many merchant-ships had fallen into the hands of the enemy; of delivering ships to the French King, in order to serve against the hugonots; of being employed in the sale of honors and offices; of accepting extensive grants from the crown; of procuring many titles of honor for his kindred; of administering physic to the late King without acquainting his physicians. All these articles appear, from comparing the accusation and reply, to be either frivolous, or false, or both. The only charge, which could be regarded as important, was, that he had extorted a sum of ten thousand pounds from the East-India company, and that he had confiscated some goods belonging to French merchants, under pretext of being the property of Spanish. The impeachment never came to a full determination; so that it is difficult for us to give a decisive regard to these articles: But it must be confessed, that the Duke's answer, in these particulars, as in all the rest, is so clear and satisfactory, that it is impossible to refuse our assent to it. His faults and blemishes were, in many respects, very great; but rapacity and avarice were vices, with which he was intirely unacquainted.

## *The History of Great Britain*

'Tis remarkable, that the commons, tho' so much at a loss to find articles of charge against Buckingham, never adopted Bristol's accusation, or impeached the Duke for his conduct in the Spanish treaty, the most blameable circumstance of his whole life. He had reason to believe the Spaniards sincere in their professions; yet, in order to gratify his private passions, he had hurried his master and his country into a war pernicious to the interests of both. But so riveted thro'out the nation were the prejudices with regard to Spanish deceit and falsehood, that very few of the commons seem, as yet, to have been convinced, that they had been seduced by Buckingham's narrative: A certain proof, that a discovery of this nature, tho' with some it might have influence, was not, as is imagined by several historians, the sole or chief cause of so sudden and surprizing a variation in the measures of the parliament.<sup>2</sup>

While the commons were thus warmly engaged against Buckingham, the King seemed desirous of embracing every opportunity, by which he could mark a contempt and disregard for them. No one was, at that time, sufficiently sensible of the great weight, which the commons bore in the balance of the constitution. The history of England had never hitherto afforded an instance, where any great movement or revolution had proceeded from the lower house. And as their rank, both considered in a body and as individuals, was but the second in the kingdom; nothing less than fatal experience could engage the English princes to pay a due regard to the inclinations of that formidable assembly.

The Earl of Suffolk, chancellor of the university of Cam-

2. By a speech of Sir Simon D'ewes, in the first year of the long parliament, it clearly appears, that the nation never had, even to that time, been rightly instructed in the transactions of the Spanish negotiations, and still believed the court of Madrid to have been altogether insincere in all their professions. What reason, upon that supposition, had they to blame either the Prince or Buckingham for their conduct, or for the narrative delivered to the parliament? This is a capital fact, and ought to be well attended to. D'ewes's speech is in Nalson, Vol. ii. p. 368.

## *Charles I*

bridge, dying about this time, Buckingham, tho' lying under impeachment, yet, by means of court-interest, was chosen in his place. The commons resented and loudly complained of this affront; and the more to enrage them, the King himself wrote a letter to the university, extolling the Duke, and giving them thanks for his election.

The Lord keeper, in the King's name, commanded the house expressly not to meddle with his minister and servant, Buckingham; and ordered them to finish, in a few days, the law, which they had begun for the subsidies, and to make some addition to them; otherwise they must expect to sit no longer. And tho' these harsh commands were endeavored to be explained and mollified, a few days afterwards, by a speech of Buckingham, they failed not to leave a very disagreeable impression behind them.

Besides a more stately style, which Charles, in general, affected to this parliament, than to the last, he went so far as to threaten the commons in a message, if they did not furnish him with supplies, that he would be obliged to try *new councils*. This language was sufficiently clear: Yet, lest any ambiguity should remain, Sir Dudley Carleton, vice chamberlain, took care to explain it. 'I pray you consider,' said he, 'what these new councils are or may be. I fear to declare those that I conceive. In all christian kingdoms, you know, that parliaments were in use antiently, by which those kingdoms were governed in a most flourishing manner; until the monarchs began to know their own strength, and seeing the turbulent spirit of their parliaments, at length they, by little and little, began to stand on their prerogatives, and at last overthrew the parliaments, thro'out Christendom, except here only with us. – Let us be careful then to preserve the King's good opinion of parliaments, which bringeth such happiness to this nation, and makes us envied of all others, while there is this sweetness between his Majesty and the commons; lest we lost the repute of a free people by our turbulency in parliament.' These imprudent suggestions rather gave warning than struck terror. A precarious liberty, the commons thought, which was to be

preserved by unlimited complaisance, was no liberty at all. And it was necessary, while yet in their power, to secure the constitution by such invincible barriers, that no king or minister should ever, for the future, dare to speak such a language to any parliament, or even to entertain such a project against them.

Two members of the house, Sir Dudley Diggs and Sir John Elliot, who had been employed as managers of the impeachment against the Duke, were thrown into prison. The commons immediately declared, that they would proceed no farther upon business till they had satisfaction in their privileges. Charles alleged, for reason of this violent measure, certain seditious expressions, which, he said, in their accusation of the Duke, had dropped from these members. Upon inquiry, it appeared, that no such expressions had been used. The members were released; and the King reaped no farther benefit from this attempt than to exasperate still farther the house, and to show his own precipitancy and indiscretion.

Moved by this example, the house of peers were roused from their inactivity; and claimed liberty for the Earl of Arundel, who had been lately confined in the tower. After many fruitless shifts and evasions, the King, tho' very ungracefully, was at last obliged to comply. And in this incident, it sufficiently appeared, that the lords, however little inclined to popular courses were not wanting in a just sense of their own dignity.

The ill humor of the commons, thus wantonly irritated by the court, and finding no gratification in the legal peachment of Buckingham, sought other materials, on which it might exert itself. The never failing cry of popery here served them in stead. They again claimed the execution of the penal laws against catholics; and they presented to the King a list of persons, entrusted with offices, most of them insignificant, who were either convicted or suspected recusants. In this particular, they had, no doubt, some reason to blame the King's conduct. He had promised to the last house of commons a redress of this religious grievance: But

he was too apt, in imitation of his father, to consider these promises as temporary expedients, which, after the dissolution of the parliament, he was not any farther to regard. A new odium, likeways, by these representations, was attempted to be thrown upon Buckingham. His mother, who had great influence over him, was a professed catholic; his wife was not free from suspicion: And the indulgence, given to catholics, was of course supposed to proceed intirely from his credit and authority.

"Tis remarkable, that persecution was here chiefly pushed on by laymen; and that the church was willing to have granted more liberty than would be allowed by the commons. The reconciling doctrines too of Montague failed not anew to meet with severe censures from that zealous assembly.

The next attack, made by the commons, had it prevailed, would have proved decisive. They were preparing a remonstrance against the levying of tonnage and poundage without consent of parliament. This article, along with the new impositions laid on merchandize by James contained near a half of the crown-revenues; and by depriving the King of these resources, they would have reduced him to a total subjection and dependance. While they retained such a pledge, over and above the supply already promised, they were sure that nothing could be refused them. Tho' they could fix no legal crime against the Duke, they justly regarded him as a very unable and even pernicious minister; and they intended to present a petition, which would then have been equivalent to a command, for his removal from his Majesty's person and councils.

The King was alarmed at the yoke, which he saw prepared for him. Buckingham's great guilt, he thought, was the being his friend and favorite. All the other complaints against him were mere pretexts. A little before, he was the idol of the people. No new crime had since been discovered. After the most diligent inquiry, prompted by the greatest malice, the smallest appearance of guilt could not be fixed upon him. What idea, he asked, must all mankind entertain

of his honor, should he sacrifice his innocent friend to pecuniary considerations? Wh<sup>t</sup> farther authority would he have in the nation, were he capable, in the beginning of his reign, to give, in so signal an instance, such matter of triumph to his enemies, and discouragement to his adherents? To-day, the commons pretended to wrest his minister from him. To-morrow, they would attack some branch of his prerogative. By their remonstrances and promises and protestations, they had engaged the crown in a war. As soon as they saw a retreat impossible, without waiting for new incidents, without covering themselves with new pretexts; they immediately deserted him, and refused him all reasonable supply. 'Twas evident, that they desired nothing so much as to see him plunged in inextricable difficulties, of which they intended to take advantage. To such deep perfidy, to such unbounded usurpations, it was necessary to oppose proper firmness and resolution. And any extremity was preferable to the contempt of subjects, to the insults of mean adversaries.

Prompted by these motives, Charles was determined immediately to dissolve the parliament. When this resolution was known, the house of peers, whose compliant behavior intitled them to some authority with him, endeavored to interpose; and they petitioned him, that he would allow the parliament to sit some time longer. *Not a moment longer*, cried the King hastily; and he soon after ended this session by a dissolution.

As this measure was foreseen, the commons took care to finish and disperse their remonstrance, which they intended as a justification of their conduct to the people. The King, likeways, on his part, published a declaration, where he gave the reasons of his disagreement with the parliament, and of their sudden dissolution, before they had time to conclude any one act. These papers furnished the partizans on both sides with ample matter of apology or of recrimination. But all impartial men judged. '*That* the commons, tho' they had not violated any law, yet, by their unliableness and independance, were insensibly changing, perhaps improv-

ing, the spirit and genius, while they preserved the forms, of the constitution: And *that* the King was acting altogether without any plan; blindly running on in a road, surrounded, on all hands, with the most dangerous precipices, and concerting no proper measures, either for submitting to the obstinacy of the commons, or for subduing it'.

After a breach with the parliament, which seemed so difficult to repair, the only rational council, which Charles could pursue, was immediately to conclude a peace with Spain, and to render himself, as far as possible, independent of his people, who discovered so little inclination to support him. Nothing could be more easy in the execution than this measure, nor more agreeable to his own and to national interest: But, beside the treaties and engagements, which he had entered into with Holland and with Denmark, the King's thoughts were, at this time, intirely averse to pacific councils. There are two circumstances in his character, seemingly incompatible, which attended him during the whole course of his reign, and were the chief cause of all his misfortunes: He was very stiddy and even obstinate in his purpose; and he was easily governed, by reason of his facility, and of his deference to men, much inferior to himself both in morals and understanding. His great ends he inflexibly maintained: But, the means of attaining them, he readily received from his ministers and favorites; tho' not always fortunate in his choice. The furious, impetuous Buckingham, inflamed with a desire of revenge for injuries, which himself had committed, and animated with a love for glory, which he had not talents to merit, had, at this time, notwithstanding his profuse, licentious life, acquired an invincible ascendant over the virtuous and gentle temper of the King.

The *new councils*, which Charles had mentioned to the parliament, were now to be tried, in order to supply his necessities. Had he possessed any military force, on which he could depend; 'tis likely, that he had, at once, taken off the mask, and governed without any regard to the antient

laws and constitution: So high an idea had he imbibed of kingly prerogative, and so contemptible a notion of the privileges of those popular assemblies, from which, he thought, he had met with such ill usage. But his army was new levied, ill paid, and worse disciplined; no way superior to the militia, who were much more numerous, and who were, in a great measure, under the influence of the country-gentlemen. It behoved him, therefore, to proceed cautiously, and to cover his enterprizes under the pretext of antient precedents; tho', it must be confessed, the veil could not possibly be thinner and more transparent.

A commission was openly granted to compound with the catholics, and agree for a dispensation with the penal laws, enacted against them. By this expedient, the King both filled his coffers, and gratified his inclination of giving indulgence to these religionists: But he could not readily have employed any branch of prerogative, which would have been more disagreeable, or would have appeared more exceptionable to his protestant subjects.

From the nobility, he desired assistance: From the city, he required a loan of 100,000 pound. The former contributed slowly: But the latter, covering themselves with many pretexts and excuses, gave him at last a plain denial.

In order to equip a fleet, a distribution, by order of the council, was made to all the maritime towns; and each of them was required, with the assistance of the adjacent counties, to arm so many vessels, as were appointed them. The city of London was rated at twenty ships. This is the first appearance, in Charles's reign, of ship-money; a taxation, which afterwards created such violent discontents.

Loans were by privy seal required of several: To others, the way of benevolence was proposed: Methods, supported by precedents, condemned by positive laws, and always invidious even to times more submissive and compliant. In the most despotic governments, such expedients would be regarded, as irregular and disorderly.

These councils for supply were conducted with some moderation; till news arrived, that a great battle was fought,

betwixt the King of Denmark and Count Tilly, the imperial general; where the former was totally defeated. Money now, more than ever, became requisite, in order to repair so great a breach in the alliance, and to support a prince, who was so nearly related to Charles, and who had been engaged in the war, chiefly by the intrigues and promises of the English monarch. After some deliberation, an act of council was passed, importing, that, as the urgency of affairs admitted not the way of parliament, the most speedy, equal, and convenient method of supply was by a General Loan from the subject, according as every man was assessed in the rolls of the last subsidy. That precise sum was required, which each would have paid had the vote of four subsidies been passed into a law: But care was taken to inform the people, that the sums exacted were not to be called subsidies but loans. Had any doubt remained, that forced loans were a violation of liberty, and must, by necessary consequence, render all parliaments superfluous; this was the proper expedient for opening the eyes of the whole nation.

The commissioners, appointed to levy these loans, among other articles of secret instruction, were enjoined, 'If any shall refuse to lend, and shall make delays or excuses, and persist in his obstinacy, that they examine him upon oath, whether he has been dealt with to deny or refuse to lend, or make an excuse for not lending? Who has dealt with him, and what speeches or persuasions were used to that purpose? And that they shall also charge every such person, in his Majesty's name, upon his allegiance, not to disclose to any one, what his answer was'. So violent an inquisitorial power, so absurd an attempt at secrecy, were the objects equally of indignation and of ridicule.

That speculative despotism might lend assistance to practical, and religious tyranny support civil, sermons were preached by Sibthorpe and Manwaring, in favour of the general loan; and the court very industriously spred them over the kingdom. Passive obedience was there recommended in its full extent, the whole authority of the state

was represented as belonging to the king alone, and all limitations of laws and constitutions were rejected as seditious and impious. So openly was this doctrine espoused by the King, that Archbishop Abbot, a popular and virtuous prelate; because he would not licence Sibthorpe's sermon, was banished from London, and confined to one of his country-seats. Such commands, at that time, were not usually disputed. Abbot's principles of liberty, and his opposition to Buckingham, had always rendered him very ungracious at court, and had acquired him the character of a puritan. For 'tis remarkable, that that party made the privileges of the nation as much a part of their religion, as the church-party did the prerogatives of the crown; and nothing tended farther to recommend among the people, who always take opinions in the lump, the whole system and principles of the former sect. The King soon found, by fatal experience, that this engine of religion, which, with so little necessity, was introduced into politics, falling into abler hands, was played with the most terrible success against him.

Tho' the nation was thus treated like a conquered province, its spirit was far from being subdued. Thro'out all England, many refused these loans, and some were even active in encouraging their neighbours to insist upon their common rights and privileges. By warrant of the council, *these* were thrown into prison. Most of them with patience submitted to confinement, or applied by petition to the King, who commonly released them. Five gentlemen alone, Sir Thomas Darnel, Sir John Corbet, Sir Walter Earl, Sir John Heveningham, and Sir Edmond Hambden, had spirit enough, at their own hazard and expence, to defend the public liberties, and to demand releasement, not as a favor from the court, but as their due, by the laws of their country. No particular cause was assigned of their confinement, The special command alone of the King and council was pleaded And by law, it was asserted, this was not sufficient reason for refusing bail or releasement to the prisoners.

This question was brought to a solemn trial, before the

## *Charles I*

king's bench; and the whole kingdom were attentive to the issue of a cause, which was of much greater consequence than the event of many battles.

By the debates on this subject, it appeared, beyond controversy, to the whole nation, that their ancestors had been so jealous of personal liberty, as to secure it against arbitrary power in the crown, by six<sup>3</sup> several statutes, and by an article<sup>4</sup> of the Great Charter itself, the most sacred foundation of the laws and constitution. But the kings of England, who had not been able to prevent the enacting of these laws, had sufficient authority, when the tide of liberty was spent, to hinder their regular execution; and, beside the great danger of failing, they esteemed it superfluous to attempt the repeal of statutes, which they found so many expedients and pretexts to elude. Turbulent and seditious times frequently occurred, when the safety of the people absolutely required the confinement of factious leaders; and by the genius of the old constitution, the prince, of himself, was accustomed to assume every branch of prerogative, which was found necessary for the preservation of public peace and of his own authority. Expediency, at other times, would cover itself under the appearance of necessity; and, in proportion as precedents multiplied, the will alone of the sovereign was sufficient to supply the place of expediency, of which he constituted himself the sole judge. Tho' rebellious subjects had frequently, in the open field, ranged themselves in battle against their prince; no person had been found so hardy, while confined and at mercy, as to set himself in opposition to regal power, and to claim the protection of the laws and constitution, against the arbitrary will of the sovereign. 'Twas not till this age, when the spirit of liberty was universally diffused, when the principles of government were nearly reduced to a system, that these five gentlemen above-mentioned, by a noble effort, ventured, in this national cause, to bring the question to a final deter-

3. 25. Edw. III. cap 4. 28. Edw. III. cap. 3. 37. Edw. III. cap. 18.

38. Edw. III. cap. 9. 42. Edw. III. cap. 3. 1. Rich. II. cap. 12.

4. Chap. 29.

mination. And the King was astonished to find, that a power, exercised by his predecessors almost without interruption, was proved, upon trial, to be directly opposite to the clearest laws, and supported by few or no undoubted precedents in courts of judicature. These had scarcely, in any instance, refused bail upon the commitments by special command of the king; because the persons committed had seldom or never dared to demand it.

Sir Randolph Crew, Lord chief justice, had been displaced, as unfit for the purposes of the court: Sir Nicholas Hyde, esteemed more compliant, had obtained that high office: Yet the judges, by his direction, went no farther than to remand the gentlemen to their prisons, and refuse the bail, which was offered. Heath, the attorney-general, insisted, that the court should enter a general judgment, that no bail could be granted, upon a commitment by the King or council: But the judges wisely forebore. The nation, they saw, were already, to the last degree, exasperated. Their chains were now held up to them. And the most invidious prerogative of the crown, that of imprisoning the subject, was here, openly, and solemnly, and in numerous instances, exercised for the most invidious purpose, in order to extort loans, or rather subsidies, without consent of parliament.

But this was not the only hardship, of which the nation then found reason to complain. The army, which had made the fruitless expedition to Cadiz, were billeted about the kingdom; and money was arbitrarily levied upon the counties, for the payment of their quarters.

The soldiers were billeted upon private houses, contrary to custom, which required, that, in all ordinary cases, they should be quartered in inns and public houses.

Those, who had refused or delayed the loan, were sure to be loaded with a greater number of these dangerous and disorderly guests.

Many too, of low condition, who had shown a refractory disposition, were pressed to the service, and enlisted in the fleet or army. Sir Peter Hayman, for the same reason, was

dispatched into the Palatinate: Glanville, an eminent lawyer, had been obliged, during the former interval of parliament, to accept of an office in the navy.

The soldiers, ill-paid and undisciplined, committed many crimes and outrages; and increased extremely the public discontents. To prevent these disorders, martial law, so requisite to the support of discipline, was exercised upon the soldiers. By a contradiction, which is very natural, when the people are exasperated, the outrages of the army were complained of; the remedy was thought still more intolerable. Tho' the expediency, if we are not rather to say, the necessity, of martial law, had formerly been esteemed, of itself, a sufficient ground for establishing it; men, now become more jealous of liberty, and more refined reasoners in questions of government, regarded, as illegal and arbitrary, every exercise of authority, which was not supported by express statute, or uninterrupted precedent.

It may safely be affirmed, that, except a few prostituted courtiers or bigotted ecclesiastics, all men were highly discontented with this complication of grievances, under which the nation labored. Tho' antient precedents were pleaded, in favor of the King's measures, a great difference, upon comparison, was observed betwixt the cases. Acts of power, however irregular, might casually and at intervals, be exercised by a prince, for the sake of dispatch or expediency; and yet liberty still subsist, in some tolerable degree, under his administration. But where all these were reduced into a system, were exerted without interruption, were studiously fought for, in order to supply the place of laws, and subdue the refractory spirit of the nation; it was necessary to find some speedy remedy, or finally to abandon all hopes of preserving the antient freedom of the constitution. Nor could moderate men esteem the provocation, which the King had received, tho' great, sufficient, in any degree, to warrant all these violent measures. The commons, as yet, had no way invaded his authority: They had only exercised, as best pleased them, their own privileges. Was he excusable, because, from one house of parliament, he had met with some

harsh and unkind treatment, to make, in revenge, an unjust and illegal invasion on the rights and liberties of the whole nation?

And to what purpose all these mighty stretches of prerogative, which tore and disjointed the whole fabric of the government, and exhausted all the force of his authority? Only to support Buckingham, a very unfit minister during such critical times; and to carry on war with Spain; a war, in every respect, unjust, unnecessary, and not recommended by the least hopes of success.

But great was at this time the surprize of all men, when Charles, baffled in every attempt against the Austrian dominions, embroiled with his own subjects, unsupplied with any treasure but what he extorted by the most invidious and most dangerous measures; as if the half of Europe, now his enemy, was not sufficient for the exercise of military prowess; wantonly attacked the other great empire in his neighborhood, and engaged at once into war against those two powers, whose interest was hitherto esteemed so incompatible, that they could never, it was thought, agree either in the same friendships or enmities. I speak of the rupture with France, a measure, the most extraordinary, and accounted for from as extraordinary a cause. All authentic memoirs, both foreign and domestic, ascribe this war to Buckingham, and represent him, as actuated by motives, which would appear incredible, were we not sufficiently acquainted with the extreme violence and temerity of his character.

The three great monarchies of Europe were at this time ruled by young princes, Philip, Louis, and Charles, who were nearly of the same age, and who had implicitly resigned the government of themselves and of their empires to their creatures and ministers, Olivarez, Richelieu, and Buckingham. The people, whom the moderate temper or narrow genius of their princes, would have allowed to remain for ever in tranquillity, were strongly agitated by the emulation and jealousy of the ministers. Above all, the towering spirit of Richelieu, incapable of rest, promised an

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active age, and gave indications of great revolutions thro'-out all Europe.

This man had no sooner, by suppleness and intrigue, got possession of the reins of government, than he formed, at once, three mighty projects; to subdue the turbulent spirits of the great, to reduce the rebellious hugonots, and to curb the encroaching power of the house of Austria. Undaunted and implacable, prudent and active; no opposition of the French princes could withstand his vengeance, no cabals could escape his penetration. His sovereign himself, he held in subjection, while he exalted the throne. The people, while they lost their liberties, acquired, by means of his administration, learning, order, discipline, and renown. That confused and inaccurate genius of government, which France partook in common with other European kingdoms, he changed into a simple monarchy; at the very time, when the incapacity of Buckingham encouraged the free spirit of the commons to establish in England a regular system of liberty.

However unequal the comparison betwixt these ministers, Buckingham had entertained a mighty jealousy against Richelieu; a jealousy not founded on rivalship of power and politics, but of love and gallantry, where the Duke was as much superior to the Cardianl, as he was inferior in every other particular.

At the time, when Charles married by proxy the Princess Henrietta, the Duke of Buckingham was dispatched into France, in order to grace the nuptials, and conduct the new Queen into England. The eyes of the whole French court were directed by curiosity towards that man, who had enjoyed the unlimited favor of two successive monarchs, and who, from a private station, had mounted, in the earliest youth, to the absolute government of three kingdoms. The extreme beauty of his person, the gracefulness of his air, the splendor of his equipage, his fine taste in dress, festivals, and carousels, corresponded to the prepossessions, entertained in his favor: The affability of his behavior, the gaiety of his manners, the magnificence of his expence, in-

creased still farther the general admiration, which was paid him. All business being already concerted, the time was intirely spent in mirth and entertainments; and, during those splendid scenes, among that gay people, the Duke found himself in a situation, where he was perfectly qualified to excell. But his great success at Paris proved as fatal as his former failure at Madrid. Encouraged by the smiles of the court, he dared to carry his ambitious addresses to the Queen herself; and he failed not to make impression on a heart not undisposed to the tender passions. That attachment, at least, of the mind, which appears so delicious, and is so dangerous, seems to have been encouraged by the Princess; and the Duke presumed so far on her good graces, that, after his departure, he secretly returned upon some pretext, and, paying a visit to the Queen, was dismissed with a reproof, which savoured more of kindness than of anger.

Information of this correspondence was soon carried to Richelieu. The vigilance of that minister was here farther rouzed by jealousy. He too, either from vanity or politics, had ventured to address his vows to the Queen. But a priest, past middle age, of a severe character, and occupied in the most extensive plans of ambition or vengeance, was but an unequal match in that contest, with a young courtier, intirely disposed to gaiety and gallantry. The Cardinal's disappointment strongly inclined him to counter-work the amorous projects of his rival. When the Duke was making preparations for a new embassy to Paris, a message was sent him from Louis that, he must not think of such a journey. In a romantic passion, he swore, *That he would see the Queen, in spite of all the power of France;* and, from that moment, he was determined to engage England into a rupture with that kingdom.

He first took advantage of some quarrels, excited by the Queen of England's attendants; and he persuaded Charles to dismiss, at once, all her French servants, contrary to the express articles of the marriage-treaty. He encouraged the English ships of war and privateers to seize vessels, belong-

ing to French merchants; and *these* he readily condemned as prizes by a sentence of the court of admiralty. But finding, that all these injuries produced only remonstrances and embassies, or at most reprizals, on the part of France; he resolved to second the intrigues of the Duke of Soubize, and to undertake at once a military expedition against the nation.

Soubize, who, along with his brother, the Duke of Rohan, was the leader of the hugonot faction, was at that time in London, and strongly sollicited Charles to embrace the protection of these distressed religionists. He represented, That, after the inhabitants of Rochelle had been repressed by the combined squadrons of England and Holland, after peace was concluded with the French King under Charles's mediation, the ambitious Cardinal was still meditating the destruction of the hugonots; that preparations were silently making in every province of France for the suppression of their religion; that forts were erected in order to bridle Rochelle, the most considerable bulwark of the protestants; that the reformed in France cast their eyes on Charles as the head of their faith, and considered him as a prince engaged by interest, as well as inclination, to support them; that, as long as their party subsisted, Charles might rely on their obedience, as much as on that of his own subjects; but, if their liberties were once ravished from them, the power of France, freed from this impediment, would soon become formidable to England, and to all the neighboring nations.

Tho' Charles probably bore but small favor to the hugonots, who so much resembled the puritans, in discipline and worship, in religion and politics; he yet allowed himself to be gained by these arguments, inforced by the sollicitations of Buckingham. A fleet of a hundred sail and an army of 7,000 men were fitted out for the invasion of France, and both of them entrusted to the command of the Duke, who was altogether unacquainted both with land and sea-service. The fleet appeared before Rochelle: But so ill-concerted were the Duke's measures, that the inhabitants of that city shut their gates, and refused to admit allies, of whose

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coming they were not previously informed. All his military operations showed equal incapacity and inexperience. Instead of attacking Oleron, a fertile island and defenceless, he bent his course to the isle of Rhé, which was well-garrisoned and fortified: Having landed his men, tho' with some loss, he followed not the blow, but allowed Toiras, the French governor, five days respite, during which St Martin was victualed and provided for a siege: He left behind him the small fort of Prie, which could at first have made no manner of resistance: Tho' resolved to starve St Martin, he guarded the sea negligently, and allowed provisions and ammunition to be thrown into it: Despairing to reduce it by famine, he attacked it without having made any breach, and rashly threw away the lives of his soldiers: Having found, that a French army had stolen over in small divisions, and had landed at Prie, the fort, which he had, at first, overlooked, he began to think of a retreat; but made it so unskilfully, that it was equivalent to a total rout: He was the last, of the whole army, who embarked; and he returned to England, having lost two thirds of his land-forces; totally discredited both as an admiral and a general; and bringing no praise with him, but that vulgar one of courage and personal bravery.

The Duke of Rohan, who had taken arms as soon as Buckingham appeared upon the coast, discovered the dangerous spirit of the sect, without being able to do any mischief: The inhabitants of Rochelle, who had, at last, been induced to join themselves to the English, hastened the vengeance of their master, exhausted their provisions in supplying their allies, and were threatened with an immediate siege. Such were the fruits of Buckingham's expedition against France.

## CHAP. II

*Third parliament – Petition of right – Prorogation – Death of Buckingham – New session of parliament – Tonnage and poundage – Arminianism – Dissolution*

A MORE submissive nation than the English would have showed symptoms of discontent at these multiplied violences and disasters. Their liberties were, in a manner, ravished from them; illegal taxes extorted; their commerce, which had met with a severe check from the Spanish, was totally annihilated by the French war; those military honors, transmitted to them from their ancestors, had received a grievous stain, by two unsuccessful and ill-conducted expeditions; scarce an illustrious family but mourned, from the last of them, the loss of a son or brother; greater calamities were dreaded from the war with these powerful monarchies, concurring with the internal disorders, under which the nation labored. And all these ills were ascribed solely to Charles's obstinacy, in adhering to the counsels of Buckingham; a man no way intituled, by his birth, age, services, or merit, to that unlimited confidence, reposed in him. To be sacrificed to the interest, policy, and ambition of the great, is so much the common lot of the people, that they may appear unreasonable, who would pretend to complain of it: But to be the victim of the frivolous gallantry of a favourite, and of his boyish caprices, seemed the subject of peculiar indignation.

In this situation, it may be imagined, the King and the Duke dreaded, above all things, the assembling a parliament: But, so short-sighted had they been in their enterprizing schemes, that they found themselves under an absolute necessity of embracing that expedient. The money levied, or rather extorted, under pretext of prerogative, had come in very slowly, and had left such ill-humor in the nation, that it appeared dangerous to renew the same

measure. The absolute necessity of supply, it was hoped, would engage the commons to forget all past injuries; and, having experienced the ill effects of former obstinacy, they would probably assemble with a resolution of making some reasonable compliances. The more to soften them, it was concerted, by Sir Robert Cotton's advice, that Buckingham should be the first person, who proposed in council the calling a new parliament. Having laid in this stock of merit, he expected, that all his former misdemeanors would be overlooked and forgiven, and that, instead of a tyrant and oppressor, he would be regarded as the first patriot in the nation.

The views of the popular leaders were much more judicious and profound. When the commons assembled, they appeared to be men of the same independent spirit with their predecessors, and possessed of such riches, that their property was computed to surpass three times that of the house of peers; they were deputed by burroughs and counties, inflamed, all of them, by the late open violations of liberty; many of the members themselves had been cast into prison, and had suffered by the arbitrary measures of the court; yet, notwithstanding all these circumstances, which might prompt them to embrace violent resolutions, they entered upon business with perfect temper and decorum. They considered, that the King, disgusted at these popular assemblies, and educated with a contempt of their privileges, wanted but a fair pretext of breaking with them, and would seize the first opportunity offered by any indecent or undutiful behavior of the members. He had fairly told them, in his first speech, that, 'If they should not do their duties, in contributing to the necessities of the state, he must, in discharge of his conscience, use those other means, which God had put into his hands, in order to save that which the follies of some particular men may otherways put in danger. Take not this for a threatening,' added the King, 'for I scorn to threaten any but my equals; but as an admonition from him, who, by nature and duty, has most care of your preservation and prosperity.' The Lord keeper, by the

King's direction, subjoined, 'This way of parliamentary supplies, as his Majesty told you, he hath chosen, not as the only way, but as the fittest; not because he is destitute of others, but because it is most agreeable to the goodness of his own most gracious disposition, and to the desire and weal of his people. If this be deferred, necessity and the sword of the enemy make way to the others. Remember his Majesty's admonition; I say, remember it.' From these avowed maxims, the commons foresaw, that, if the least handle was afforded, the King would immediately dissolve them, and thence forward esteem himself justified for violating, in a manner still more open, all the antient forms of the constitution. No remedy could then be looked for, but from insurrections and civil war, of which the issue would be extremely uncertain, and which must, in all events, prove infinitely calamitous to the whole nation. To correct the late disorders in the administration required some new laws, which would, no doubt, appear harsh to a prince, so enamoured of his prerogative; and it was requisite to temper, by the decency and moderation of their debates, the rigor, which must necessarily attend their determinations. And nothing can give us a higher idea of the capacity of those men, who now guided the commons, and of the great authority, which they had acquired, than the forming and executing so judicious and so difficult a plan of operations.

The decency, however, which the popular leaders had prescribed to themselves, and recommended to others, hindered them not from making the loudest and most vigorous complaints against the grievances, under which the nation had lately laboured. Sir Francis Seymour said, 'This is the great council of the kingdom, and here with certainty, if not here only, his Majesty may see, as in a true glass, the state of the kingdom. We are all called hither by his writs, in order to give him faithful counsel; such as may stand with his honor: And this we must do without flattery. We are all sent hither by the people, in order to deliver their just grievances: And this we must do without fear. Let us not

act like Cambyses's judges, who, when their approbation was demanded by the prince to some illegal measure, said, that, *Tho' there was a written law, the Persian kings might follow their own will and pleasure.* This was base flattery, fitter for our reproof than our imitation; and as fear, so flattery taketh away the judgment. For my part, I shall shun both; and speak my mind with as much duty, as any man, to his Majesty, without neglecting the public.

'But how can we express our affections, while we retain our fears; or speak of giving, till we know whether we have any thing to give. For, if his Majesty may be persuaded to take what he will, what need we give?

'That this hath been done, appeareth by the billeting of soldiers, a thing noway advantageous to the King's service, and a burthen to the commonwealth: By the imprisonment of gentlemen for refusing the loan, who, if they had done the contrary for fear, had been as blameable as the projectors of that oppressive measure. To countenance these proceedings, hath it not been preached in the pulpit, or rather prated, that *All we have is the king's by divine right.* But when preachers forsake their own calling, and turn ignorant statesmen; we see how willing they are to exchange a good conscience for a bishopric.

'He, I must confess, is no good subject, who would not, willingly and cheerfully, lay down his life, when that sacrifice may promote the interests of his sovereign and the good of the commonwealth. But he is not a good subject, he is a slave, who will allow his goods to be taken from him against his will, and his liberty against the laws of the kingdom. By opposing these practices, we shall but tread in the steps of our forefathers, who still preferred the public before their private interest, nay before their very lives. It will in us be a wrong done to ourselves, to our posterities, to our consciences, if we forgo this claim and pretension.'

'I read of a custom,' said Sir Robert Philips, 'among the old Romans, that, once every year, they held a solemn festival, at which their slaves had liberty, without exception, to speak what they pleased, in order to ease their afflicted

minds; and, on the conclusion of the festival, the slaves severally returned to their former servitudes.

'This institution may, with some distinction, well set forth our present state and condition. After the revolution of some time, and the grievous sufferance of many violent oppressions, we have now, at last, as those slaves, obtained, for a day, some liberty of speech: But shall not, I trust, be hereafter slaves: For we are born free. Yet, what new illegal burthens our estates and persons have groaned under, my heart yearns to think of, my tongue falters to utter.'

'The grievances, by which we are oppressed, I draw under two heads; acts of power against law, and the judgments of lawyers against our liberty.'

Having mentioned three illegal judgments, passed within his memory; that by which the Scotch, born after James's accession, were admitted to all the privileges of English subjects; that by which the new impositions had been warranted; and the last, by which arbitrary imprisonments were authorized; he thus proceeded.

'I can live, tho' another, who has no right, be put to live along with me; nay, I can live, tho' burthened with impositions, beyond what at present I labor under: But to have my liberty, which is the soul of my life, ravished from me; to have my person, pent up in a jail, without relief by law, and to be so adjudged, - O! improvident ancestors! O! unwise forefathers! to be so curious in providing for the quiet possession of our lands and the liberties of parliament; and, at the same time, to neglect our personal liberty, and let us lie in prison, and that during pleasure, without redress or remedy! If this be law, why do we talk of liberties? Why trouble ourselves with disputes about a constitution, franchises, property of goods, and the like? What may any man call his own, if not the liberty of his person?

'I am weary of treading these ways; and therefore conclude to have a select committee, in order to frame a petition to his Majesty for redress of these oppressions. And this petition being red, examined, and approved, may be delivered to the King; of whose gracious answer we have no cause to

doubt, our desires being so reasonable, our intentions so loyal, and the manner of dutiful. Neither need we fear, that this is the critical parliament, as has been insinuated; or that this is a way to distraction: But assure ourselves of a happy issue. Then shall the King, as he calls us his great council, find us his true council, and own us his good council.'

The same topics were inforced by Sir Thomas Wentworth. After mentioning projectors and ill ministers of state. 'These,' said he, 'have introduced a privy council, ravishing, at once, the spheres of all antient government; destroying all liberty; imprisoning us without bail or bond. They have taken from us – What shall I say? indeed, what have they left us? By tearing up the roots of all property, they have taken from us every means of supplying the King, and of ingratiating ourselves by voluntary proofs of our duty and attachment towards him.

'To the making whole all these breaches, I shall apply myself; and, to all these diseases, shall propound a remedy. By one and the same thing, have the King and the people been hurt, and by the same must they be cured. We must vindicate: What? New things? No: Our antient, legal, and vital liberties; by re-inforcing the laws, enacted by our ancestors; by setting such a stamp upon them, that no licentious spirit shall dare henceforth to invade them. And shall we think this a way to break a parliament? No: Our desires are modest and just. I speak both for the interest of King and people. If we enjoy not these rights, it will be impossible for us to relieve him. Let us never, therefore, doubt of a favorable reception from his goodness.'

These sentiments were unanimously embraced by the whole house. Even the court-party pretended not to plead, in defence of the late measures, any thing but the necessity, to which the King had been reduced, by the obstinacy of the former parliament. A vote, therefore, was passed without opposition, against arbitrary imprisonments and forced loans. And the spirit of liberty having obtained some satisfaction by this exertion of itself, the King's re-iterated messages,

who pressed for supply, were attended to with better temper. Five subsidies were voted him; with which, tho' much inferior to his wants, he declared himself well-satisfied. The Duke's approbation too of this measure was mentioned by Secretary Coke; but the conjunction of a subject with the sovereign was ill received by the house. Tho' disgusted with the King, the jealousy, which they felt for his honor, was more sensible than that, which his unbounded confidence in the Duke would allow even himself to entertain.

The supply, tho' voted, was not, as yet, passed into a law; and the commons resolved to employ the interval, in providing firm barriers to their rights and liberties, so lately violated. They knew, that their own vote, declaring the illegality of the former measures, had not, of itself, sufficient authority to secure the constitution against all future invasion. Some act to that purpose must receive the sanction of the whole legislature; and they appointed a committee to prepare the model of so important a law. By collecting into one effort all the dangerous and oppressive claims of his prerogative, Charles had exposed them to the hazard of one assault; and had farther, by a nearer view of the consequences attending them, rouzed the independent genius of the commons. Forced loans, benevolences, taxes without consent of parliament, arbitrary imprisonment, billeting soldiers, martial law; these were the grievances complained of, and against these an eternal remedy was to be provided. The commons pretended not, as they affirmed, to any unusual powers or privileges: They aimed only at securing those transmitted them from their ancestors: And their law they resolved to call a **PETITION OF RIGHT**; as implying that it contained a corroboration or explanation of the antient constitution, not any infringement of regal prerogative or acquisition of new liberties.

While the committee was employed in framing the petition of right, the favorers of each party, both in parliament and thro'out the nation, were engaged in disputes about this bill, which, in all likelihood, was to form a memorable aera in the English government.

That the statutes, said the partizans of the commons, which secure English liberty, are not become obsolete, appears hence, that the English have ever been free, and have ever been governed by law and a limited constitution. Privileges in particular, which are founded on the GREAT CHARTER, must always remain in force, because derived from a source of never failing authority; regarded in all ages, as the most sacred contract betwixt king and people. Such attention was paid to this charter by our generous ancestors, that they got the confirmation of it re-iterated thirty several times; and even secured it by a law, which seems in execution impracticable. They enacted, *That no statute, which should be afterwards enacted in contradiction to any article of that charter, should ever have any force or validity.* But with regard to that important article, which secures personal liberty; so far from attempting, at any time, any legal infringement of it; they have corroborated it by six statutes, and put it out of all doubt and controversy. If in practice it has often been violated, abuses can never come in place of rules; nor can any rights or legal powers be derived from injury and injustice. But the subjects title to personal liberty is not founded only on antient, and therefore, the more sacred laws: It is confirmed by the whole ANALOGY of the government and constitution. A free monarchy, in which every individual is a slave, is a glaring contradiction; and 'tis requisite, where the laws assign privileges to the different orders of the state, that it likewise secure the independence of all the members. If any difference could be made in this particular, 'twere better to abandon even life or property to the arbitrary will of the prince; nor would such immediate danger ensue, from that concession, to the laws and to the privileges of the people. To bereave of his life a man not condemned by any legal trial, is so egregious an exercise of tyranny, as must at once shock the natural humanity of princes, and convey an alarm thro' the whole commonwealth. To confiscate a man's fortune, besides being a most atrocious violence, exposes the monarch so much to the imputation of avarice and rapacity, that it will

be rarely attempted in any civilized government. But confinement, tho' a less striking, is no less severe a punishment; nor is there any spirit, so erect and independent, as not to be broke by the long continuance of the silent and inglorious sufferings of a jail. The power of imprisonment, therefore, being the most natural and potent engine of arbitrary government, it is absolutely necessary to remove it from a government, which is free and legal.

The partizans of the court reasoned after a different manner. The true rule of government, said they, during any period, is that to which the people, from time immemorial, have been accustomed, and to which they naturally pay a prompt obedience. A practice, which has ever struck their senses, and of which they have seen and heard innumerable precedents, has another kind of authority with them, than maxims derived from antiquated statutes and mouldy records. In vain do the lawyers establish it as a principle, that a statute can never be abrogated by opposite custom; but requires to be expressly repealed by a contrary statute: While they pretend to inculcate an axiom, peculiar to English jurisprudence, they violate the most established principles of human nature; and even, by necessary consequence, reason in contradiction to law itself, which they would represent as so sacred and inviolable. A law, to have any authority, must be derived from a legislature, which has right. And whence do all legislatures derive their right but from long custom and established practice? If a statute, contrary to public good, has, at any time, been rashly voted and assented to, either from the violence of faction, or the inexperience of senates and princes; it cannot be more effectually abrogated, than by a train of contrary precedents, which prove, that, from common consent, it has tacitly been set aside, as inconvenient and impracticable. Such has been the case with all those statutes enacted during turbulent times, in order to confine royal prerogative, and cramp the sovereign in his protection of the public, and his execution of the laws. But above all the branches of prerogative, that, which is most necessary to be preserved, is the power of im-

prisonment. Faction and discontent, like diseases, frequently arise in every political body; and, during these disorders, 'tis by the salutary exercise alone of this discretionary power, that rebellions and civil wars can be prevented. To circumscribe this power, is to destroy its nature: Entirely to abrogate it, is impracticable; and the attempt itself must prove dangerous, if not pernicious to the public. The supreme magistrate, in critical and turbulent times, will never, conformable either to prudence or duty, allow the state to perish, while there remains a remedy, which, however irregular, it is still in his power to apply. And if, moved by a regard to public good, he employs any exercise of power, condemned by recent and express statute; how greedily, in such dangerous times, will factious leaders seize such a pretext of throwing on his government the imputation of tyranny and despotism? Were the dilemma quite necessary, it were surely much better for human society to be destitute of liberty than to be deprived of government.

Impartial reasoners will confess, that this subject is not, on both sides, without its difficulties. Where a general and rigid law is enacted against arbitrary imprisonments, it would appear, that government cannot, in times of sedition and faction, be conducted but by temporary suspensions of the law; and such an expedient, during the age of Charles, was never thought of. The meetings of parliament were too precarious, and their determinations might be too dilatory, to serve in cases of urgent necessity. Nor was it then conceived, that the authority of these assemblies was ever to become so sovereign, that the prince must always conform himself to it, and could never have any occasion to guard against *their* practices, as well as against those of his other subjects.

Tho' the house of lords were not insensible to the reasons urged in favor of the pretensions of the commons; they esteemed the arguments, pleaded in favor of the crown, still more cogent and convincing. That assembly seems, during this whole period, to have acted, in the main, a reasonable and a moderate part; and if their byass inclined a little too

much, as is natural, to the side of monarchy, they were far from entertaining and design to sacrificing to arbitrary will the liberties and privileges of the nation. Ashley, the King's serjeant, having asserted, in a pleading before the peers, that the king must sometimes govern by acts of state as well as by laws; this position gave such offence, that he was immediately committed to prison, and was not released but upon his recantation and submission. Being, however, afraid, that the commons would go too far in their projected petition, the peers proposed a plan of a more moderate petition, which they recommended to the consideration of the other house. It conflicted merely in a general declaration, That the great charter, and the six statutes, conceived to be explanations of it, stand still in force, to all intents and purposes; that, in consequence of the charter and the statutes, and by the tenor of the antient customs and laws of the land, every *free* subject has a fundamental property in his goods and a fundamental liberty of his person; that this property and liberty are as entire at present as during any former period of the English government; that in all common cases, the common law ought to be the standard of proceedings. 'And in case, that, for the security of his Majesty's person, the general safety of his people, or the peaceable government of the kingdom, the King shall find just cause, for reasons of state, to imprison or restrain any man's person; he was petitioned graciously to declare, that within a *convenient* time, he shall and will express the cause of the commitment or restraint, either general or special, and upon a cause so expressed, will leave the prisoner immediately to be tried according to the common law of the land.'

Archbishop Abbot was employed by the lords to recommend, in a conference, this plan of a petition to the house of commons. The prelate, as was, no doubt, foreseen from his known principles, was not extremely urgent in his applications; and the lower house were fully convinced, that the general declarations signified nothing, and that the latter clause left their liberties in a much worse condition than

before. They proceeded, therefore, with great zeal, in framing the model of a petition, which should contain expressions, more precise, and more favorable to public freedom.

The King could easily see the consequences of these proceedings. Tho' he had offered, at the beginning of the session, to give his consent to any law for the security of the rights and liberties of the people; he had not expected, that such inroads should be made on what he esteemed his prerogative. In order, therefore, to divert the commons from their intention, he sent a message, where he desired the houses, 'Clearly to let him know, whether they will rest upon his royal promise in favor of their liberties: Which promise he had given at several times, and chiefly by the Lord keeper's speech made in his own presence. If they rely on it, he assured them, it should be really and royally performed.'

Secretary Coke, who delivered this message, after some preamble, and some apology for past grievances, proceeded in this manner. 'When means were denied his Majesty, being a young king and newly come to the crown, which he found engaged in a war; what could we expect in such necessities? His Majesty has called this parliament to make up the breach: His Majesty assures us, that we shall not have like cause to complain: He assures us, that the laws shall be established. What can we desire more? The important point is, that we provide for posterity, and prevent the like practices for the future. Were not the same means provided by them before us? Can we do more? We stand at present on the confines betwixt the liberty of the subject and the prerogatives of the King. I hope, that we shall not pretend to add any thing for ourselves, in order to depress him. I will not divine: Yet I think, that, in such pretensions, we shall find difficulty with the King; nay perhaps, with the lords. For my part, I shall not, as counsellor to his Majesty, deliver any opinion, which I will not openly declare and justify, here, or at the council-board. Will we, in this necessity, strive to bring ourselves into a better condition and greater liberty than our fathers enjoyed, and reduce the crown to a worse than ever? I dare not advise his Majesty

to give way to such measures. What we now desire, if it be no innovation, is all contained in those acts and statutes; and whatever more we shall add is a diminution to the King's power, and an accession to our own. We deal with a wise and valiant prince, who hath a sword in his hand for our good; and this good cannot be attained without power. Do not think, that, by parliamentary debates, or even by clauses of statutes, we can make that to be unlawful, which, by experience, we have found to be derived from necessity, and from a necessity so urgent, that it admits not of remedy from any law. — And I beseech you to consider, whether those, who have been in the same place, which I now occupy, have not freely given warrants for commitments; and yet, no doubt, been entertained, nor any complaint made by the subject.'

Upon this speech there arose a great debate in the house. Many reasons were a-new urged on both sides: But, Sir Thomas Wentworth closed the debate, by saying, 'That never house of parliament, so far as regarded themselves, trusted more than the present to the goodness of their king: But we are ambitious,' said he, 'that his Majesty's goodness may remain to posterity, and we are accountable for a public trust. There hath been a public violation of the laws by the King's ministers; and nothing can satisfy the nation but a public reparation. Our desire to vindicate the subject's right by bill will carry us no farther than what is contained in former laws, with some modest provision for instruction, performance, and execution.' This contained so much the sentiments of the house, that it was universally acquiesced in.

The King, however, was not discouraged. By another message, he attempted to divert the commons from their purpose. He there acknowledged past errors, and promised, that, hereafter, there should be no just cause of complaint. And he added, 'That the affairs of the kingdom press him so, that he could not continue the session above a week or two longer: And if the house be not ready, by that time, to do what is fit for themselves, it shall be their own fault.' On

a subsequent occasion, he asked them, 'Why demand explanations, if you doubt not the performance of the statutes, according to their true meaning. Explanations will hazard an encroachment upon the prerogative. And it may well be said, What need a new law to confirm an old, if you repose confidence in the declarations, which his Majesty made to both houses?' The truth is, the great charter and the old statutes were sufficiently clear in favor of liberty: But as all kings of England, had ever, in cases of necessity or expediency, been accustomed, at intervals, to elude them; and as Charles, in a complication of instances, arbitrarily and without any just cause, had lately violated them; the commons judged it requisite to enact a new law, which might not be eluded or violated, by any interpretation, construction, or contrary precedent. Nor was it sufficient, they thought, that the King promised to return into the way of his predecessors. His predecessors, in all times, had enjoyed, at least, exercised, too much discretionary power; and by his recent abuse of it, the whole world had reason to see the necessity of intirely retrenching it.

Sir Edward Coke urged on this occasion, with the approbation of the whole house, 'Was it ever known, that general words were a sufficient satisfaction for particular grievances? Was ever a verbal declaration of the king the word of the sovereign? When grievances are complained of, the parliament is to redress them. Did ever the parliament rely on messages? They have ever put up petitions of their grievances, and the king has ever answered them. The King's message is very gracious; but, what is the law of the realm, that is the question. I put no diffidence in his Majesty; but the king must speak by record, and in particulars. Did you ever know the king's message come into a bill of subsidies? All succeeding kings will say, *Ye must trust me as you did my predecessor, and ye must have the same confidence in my messages.* But messages of love never come into a parliament. Let us put up a petition of right: Not that I distrust the King; but that I cannot give trust except in a parliamentary way.'

The King still persevered in his endeavors to elude the petition. He sent a letter to the house of lords, where he went so far as to make a particular declaration, ‘That neither he nor his privy council shall or will, at any time hereafter, commit or command to prison, or otherways restrain, any man for not lending money, nor for any other cause, which, in his conscience, he thought not to concern the public good, and the safety of king and people.’ And he farther declared, ‘That he never would be guilty of so base an action as to pretend any cause, of whose truth he was not fully satisfied.’ But this promise, tho’ inforced to the commons by the recommendation of the upper house, made no more impression than all the former messages.

Among the other shifts and evasions of the King, we may reckon the proposal of the house of peers, to subjoin, to the intended petition of right, the following clause, ‘We humbly present this petition to your Majesty, not only ‘with a care of preserving our own liberties, but with due regard to leave intire that *sovereign power*, with which your Majesty is trusted for the protection, safety, and happiness of your people.’ Less penetration, than what was possessed by the leaders of this house of commons, could easily discover how captious this clause was, and how much it was calculated to elude the whole force of the petition.

These obstacles, therefore, being surmounted, the petition of right passed the commons, and was sent to the upper house.<sup>1</sup> The peers, who were probably well pleased in secret,

1. *This petition is of so great importance, that we shall here give it at length:* Humbly shew unto our Sovereign Lord the King, the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons in parliament assembled, That, whereas it is declared and enacted, by a statute made in the time of the reign of King Edward I commonly called *Statutum de tallagio non concedendo*, that no tallage or aid shall be laid or levied by the King or his heirs in this realm, without the good will and assent of the archbishops, bishops, earls, barons, knights, burgesses, and other the freemen of the commonalty of this realm; (2) And, by authority of parliament holden in the five and twentieth year of the reign of King Edward III it is declared and enacted, That, from thenceforth, no person should be compelled to make any loans to the

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that all their sollicitations had been eluded by the commons, readily passed the petition without any material alteration and nothing but the royal assent was wanting to give it the force of a law. The King accordingly came to the house of peers, sent for the commons; and, being seated in his chair of state, the petition was read to him. Great was

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king against his will, because such loans were against reason, and the franchise of the land; (3) And, by other laws of this realm, it is provided, that none should be charged by any charge or imposition called a benevolence, nor by such like charge; (4) By which the statutes before mentioned, and other the good laws and statutes of this realm, your subjects have inherited this freedom, that they should not be compelled to contribute to any tax, tallage, aid or other like charge not set by common consent in parliament.

II. Yet nevertheless, of late divers commissions directed to sundry commissioners in several counties, with instructions, have issued; by means whereof your people have been in divers places assembled, and required to send certain sums of money unto your Majesty, and many of them, upon their refusal so to do, have had an oath administered unto them not warrantable by the laws or statutes of this realm, and have been constrained to become bound to make appearance and give attendance before your privy council, and, in other places, and others of them, have been therefore imprisoned, confined, and sundry other ways molested and disquieted; (2) And divers other charges have been laid and levied upon your people, in several counties, by lord-lieutenants, deputy-lieutenants, commissioners for musters, justices of peace, and others, by command or direction from your Majesty, or your privy council, against the laws and free customs of this realm.

III. And whereas also, by the statute called *The great charter of the liberties of England*, it is declared and enacted, That no freeman may be taken or imprisoned, or be disseized of his freehold or liberties, or his free customs, or be outlawed or exiled, or in manner destroyed, but by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.

IV. And, in the eight and twentieth year of the reign of King Edward III it was declared, and enacted, by authority of parliament, That no man, of what estate or condition that he be, should be put out of his land or tenements, nor taken, nor imprisoned, nor dispossessed, nor put to death, without being brought to answer by due process of law:

V. Nevertheless, against the tenor of the said statutes, and other the good laws and statutes of your realm to that end provided, divers

## *Charles I*

now the astonishment of all men, when, instead of the usual concise, and clear form, by which a bill is either confirmed or rejected, Charles said in answer to the petition, 'The King willeth, that right be done according to the laws and customs of the realm, and that the statutes be put in due execution; that his subjects may have no cause to complain

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of your subjects have of late been imprisoned without any cause shewed; (2) And when, for their deliverance, they were brought before justice, by your Majesty's writs of *Habeas corpus*, there to undergo and receive as the court should order, and their keepers commanded to certify the causes of their detainer, no cause was certified, but that they were detained by your Majesty's special command, signified by the lords of your privy council, and yet were returned back to several prisons, without being charged with any thing to which they might make answer according to the law:

VI. And whereas of late great companies of soldiers and mariners have been dispersed into divers counties of the realm, and the inhabitants, against their wills, have been compelled to receive them into their houses, and there to suffer them to sojourn, against the laws and customs of this realm, and to the great grievance and vexation of the people:

VII. And whereas also, by authority of parliament, in the five and twentieth year of the reign of King Edward III it is declared and enacted, That no man should be fore-judged of life or limb against the form of the *Great charter* and law of the land; (2) And, by the said *Great charter*, and other the laws and statutes of this your realm, no man ought to be judged to death but by the laws established in this your realm, either by the customs of the same realm, or by acts of parliament; (3) And whereas no offender, of what kind soever, is exempted from the proceedings to be used, and punishments to be inflicted by the laws and statutes of this your realm: Nevertheless, of late divers commissions, under your Majesty's great seal, have issued forth, by which certain persons have been assigned and appointed commissioners, with power and authority to proceed within the land, according to the justice of martial law, against such soldiers and mariners, or other dissolute persons joining with them, as should commit any murther, robbery, felony, mutiny, or other outrage or misdemeanor whatsoever, and by such summary course and order as is agreeable to martial law, and as is used in armies in time of war, to proceed to the trial and condemnation of such offenders, and them to cause to be executed and put to death according to the law martial.

VIII. By pretext whereof some of your Majesty's subjects have been, by some of the said commissioners, put to death, when and

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of any wrong or oppression, contrary to their just rights and liberties, to the preservation whereof he holds himself in conscience as much obliged as of his own prerogative.'

It is surprizing, that Charles, who had seen so many instances of the jealousy of the commons, who had himself so

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where, if, by the laws and statutes of the land, they had deserved death, by the same laws and statutes also they might, and by no other ought, to have been judged and executed:

IX. And also sundry grievous offenders, by color thereof claiming an exemption, have escaped the punishments due to them by the laws and statutes of this your realm, by reason that divers of your officers and ministers of justice have unjustly refused or forborn to proceed against such offenders, according to the same laws and statutes, upon pretence that the said offenders were punishable only by martial law, and by authority of such commissions as aforesaid; (2) Which commissions, and all other of like nature, are wholly and directly contrary to the said laws and statutes of this your realm:

X. They do therefore humbly pray your most excellent Majesty, That no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge, without common consent, by act of parliament; (2) And that none be called to make answer, or take such oath, or to give attendance, or be confined, or otherways molested or disquieted concerning the same, or for refusal thereof; (3) And that no freeman, in any such manner as is before mentioned, be imprisoned or detained; (4) And that your Majesty would be pleased to remove the said soldiers and mariners, and that your people may not be so burthened in time to come; (5) And that the foresaid commissions, for proceeding by martial law, may be revoked and annulled; And that hereafter no commissions of like nature may issue forth, to any person or persons whatsoever, to be executed as aforesaid, lest, by color of them, any of your Majesty's subjects be destroyed, or put to death, contrary to the laws and franchise of the land.

XI. All which they most humbly pray of your most excellent Majesty, as their rights and liberties, according to the laws and statutes of this realm: and that your Majesty would also vouchsafe to declare, That the awards, doings and proceedings to the prejudice of your people, in any of the premisses, shall not be drawn hereafter into consequence or example; (2) And that your Majesty would be also graciously pleased, for the further comfort and safety of your people, to declare your royal will and pleasure, That, in the things aforesaid, all your officers and ministers shall serve you according to the laws and statutes of this realm, as they tender the honor of your Majesty, and the prosperity of this kingdom. *Stat. 17. Car. cap. 14.*

much rouzed that jealousy by his frequent evasive messages during this session, could imagine, that they would rest satisfied with an answer so vague and undetermined. It was evident, that the unusual form alone of the answer must excite their attention; that the disappointment must inflame their anger; and that therefore it was necessary, as the petition seemed to bear hard on the royal prerogative, to come early to some fixed resolution, either gracefully to comply with it, or courageously to reject it.

It happened, as might have been foreseen. The commons returned in very ill-humor. Usually, when in that disposition, their zeal and jealousy for religion ran extremely high, and their enmity against the unfortunate catholics. But they had already, in the beginning of the session, presented to the King their petition of religion, and had received a satisfactory answer; tho' they expected, that the execution of the laws against papists would, for the future, be no more exact and rigid, than they had hitherto found it. To give vent to their present indignation, they fell, with their utmost force, on Dr Manwaring.

There is nothing, which tends more to excuse, if not to justify, the extreme rigor of the commons towards Charles, than his open encouragement and avowal of such general principles, as were altogether incompatible with a limited government. Manwaring had preached a sermon, which the commons found, upon inquiry, to be printed by special command from the King; and, when this sermon was looked into, it contained doctrines subversive of all civil liberty. It taught, That, tho' property was ordinarily lodged in the subject, yet, whenever any exigency required supply, all property was transferred to the king;<sup>2</sup> that the consent

2. It appears from Townshend and Sir Simon D'ewes, that this doctrine, however absurd, had been before advanced by lawyers, and even in parliament. Serjeant Heale, in the 43d of Elizabeth, said to the house, 'That he wondered they stood either at the granting of a subsidy or time of payment, when all we have is her Majesty's, and she may lawfully, at her pleasure, take it from us, and that she had as much right to all our lands and goods as to any revenue of the crown, and that he had precedents to prove it.' 'Tis certain, when the

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of parliament was not requisite for the imposition of taxes; and that the divine laws required compliance with every demand, however irregular, which the prince should make upon his subjects. For these doctrines, the commons impeached Manwaring before the peers. The sentence, pronounced upon him, was, That he should be imprisoned during the pleasure of the house, be fined a thousand pound to the King, make submission and acknowledgement for his offence, be suspended during three years, be incapable of holding any ecclesiastical dignity or secular office, and that his book be called in and burnt.

It may be worth notice, that, no sooner was the session ended, than this man, so justly disagreeable to both houses, received a pardon, and was promoted to a living of considerable value. Some years after, he was raised to the dignity of bishop of St Asaph. If the republican spirit of the commons increased, beyond all reasonable bounds, the monarchical spirit of the court; this latter, carried to so high a pitch, tended still farther to augment the former. And thus extremes were every where affected, and the just medium was gradually deserted by all men.

From Manwaring, the house of commons proceeded to censure the conduct of Buckingham, whose name, hitherto,

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commons, in the beginning of that reign, were examining a new arbitrary imposition of the Queen, Cecil brought them orders from her Majesty not to meddle with that question, telling them it was *Noli me tangere*, and that they must not inquire into the prerogative. They quietly submitted to these orders. We are not to infer, that these violent and arbitrary principles, advanced by Heale, were ever the universal, received opinion of England: Even that house of commons received them with marks of contempt and disdain. We can only conclude, that the general ideas of government approached so near to them as to give them some countenance, and some small appearance of reason. Lawyers and divines, who hunted after preferment, were tempted to adopt them; and the rest of the nation were afraid openly to oppose them, and had not any established avowed principle of liberty, upon which they could withstand them. Scarce even the slaves in eastern monarchies would admit of so wild a doctrine, except with an immediate view of flattering their pampered tyrant.

they had cautiously forbore to mention. In vain, did the King send them a message, where he told them, that the session was drawing near a conclusion; and desired, that they would not enter upon new business, nor cast any aspersions on his government and ministry. Tho' this message was endeavored to be explained and softened by a subsequent message; as Charles was apt hastily to correct any hasty step, which he had taken; it served rather to inflame than appease the commons: As if the method of their proceeding had here been prescribed to them. It was foreseen, that a great tempest was ready to burst on the Duke; and in order to divert it, the King thought proper, upon a joint application of the lords and commons, to endeavor the giving them satisfaction, with regard to the petition of right. He came, therefore, to the house of peers, and pronouncing the usual form of words, *Let it be right as is desired*, gave full sanction and authority to the petition. The acclamations, with which the house resounded, and the universal joy diffused over the nation, showed how much this petition had been the object of all men's vows and expectations.

It may be affirmed, without any exaggeration, that King's assent to the petition of right produced such a change in the government, as was almost equivalent to a revolution; and by circumscribing, in so many articles, the royal prerogative, gave additional security to the liberties of the subject. Yet were the commons far from being satisfied with this important concession. Their ill humor had been so much irritated by the King's frequent evasions and delays, that it could not be presently appeased by an assent, which he allowed to be so ungracefully extorted from him. Perhaps too, the popular leaders, implacable, and artful, saw the opportunity favorable; and turning against the King those very weapons, with which he had furnished them, resolved to pursue the victory. The bill, however, for five subsidies, which had been formerly voted, immediately passed the house; because the granting that supply was, in a manner, tacitely contracted for, upon the royal assent to the petition; and had faith been here violated, no farther trust

could have subsisted betwixt King and parliament. Having made this concession, the commons continued to carry their scrutiny into every part of government. In some particulars, their industry was laudable; in some, it may be exposed to censure.

A little after writs were issued for summoning this parliament, a commission had been granted to Sir Thomas Coventry, Lord keeper, the Earl of Marlborough, high treasurer, the Earl of Manchester, Lord president of the council, the Earl of Worcester, privy seal, the Duke of Buckingham, high admiral, and all the considerable officers of the crown, in the whole thirty three. By this commission, which, from the number of persons named in it, could be no secret, the commissioners were empowered to meet, and concert among themselves the methods of levying money by impositions, or otherways; *Where form and circumstance, as expressed in the commission, must be dispensed with, rather than the substance be lost or hazarded.* In other words, this was a scheme for finding expedients, which might raise the prerogative to an unlimited height, and render parliaments intirely useless. The commons applied for cancelling the commission; and were, no doubt, desirous, that all the world should observe how arbitrary the King's principles were, and what little regard he was disposed to pay to the liberties and privileges of his people.

A commission had likeways been granted, and some money remitted, in order to raise a thousand German horse, and transport them into England. These were interpreted to be levied, in order to support the projected impositions or excises; tho' the number seems very insufficient for such a purpose. The house took notice of this design in very severe terms: And no measure, surely, could be projected more generally odious to the whole nation. It must, however, be confessed, that the King was so far right, that he had, now at last, fallen on the only effectual method of supporting and extending his prerogative. But at the same time, he should have been sensible, that, till provided of a sufficient military force, all his attempts, in opposition to the rising

spirit of the nation, must, in the end, prove intirely fruitless; and that the higher he screwed up the springs of government, while he had so little real power to retain them in that forced situation, with more fatal violence must they fly out, when any accident occurred to restore them to their natural liberty.

The commons next resumed their censure of Buckingham's conduct and behavior, against whom they were implacable. They agreed to present a remonstrance to the King, in which they recapitulated all national grievances and misfortunes, and omitted no circumstance, which could render the whole administration desppicable and odious. The compositions with catholics, they said, amounted to no less than a toleration, hateful to God, full of dishonor and disprofit to his Majesty, and of extreme scandal and grief to his good people: They took notice of the violations of liberty above-mentioned, against which the petition of right seems to have provided a sufficient remedy: They mentioned the decay of trade, the unsuccessful expeditions to Cadiz and the isle of Rhé, the encouragement given to arminians, the commission for transporting German horse, that for levying new impositions; and all these grievances they ascribed solely to the ill conduct of the Duke of Buckingham. This remonstrance was, perhaps, not the less provoking to Charles, that, joined to the extreme acrimony, of the subject, there were preserved in it, as in most of the protestations and remonstrances of that age, an affected civility and submission in the language.

It was not without good grounds, that the commons were so fierce and assuming. Tho' they had already granted the King the supply of five subsidies, they still retained a pledge in their hands, which, they thought, ensured them of success in all their applications. Tonnage and poundage had not yet been granted by parliament; and the commons had artfully, this session, concealed their intention of invading that branch of revenue, till the royal assent had been obtained to the petition of right, which they justly esteemed of such importance. They then openly asserted, that the levying

tonnage and poundage without consent of parliament was a palpable violation of all the antient liberties of the people, and an open infringement of the petition of right, so lately granted. The King, in order to prevent the finishing and presenting this remonstrance, came suddenly to the parliament, and ended this session by a prorogation.

Being freed, for some time, from the embarrassment of this assembly, Charles began to look towards foreign wars, where all his efforts were equally imprudent and unsuccessful, as in his domestic government. To the relief of Rochelle, now closely besieged by land, and threatened with a blockade by sea, was dispatched the Earl of Denbigh, brother in law to Buckingham: But he returned without effecting any thing; and declining to attack the enemy's fleet, brought on the English arms the imputation, either of cowardice or ill conduct. In order to repair this dishonor, the Duke went to Portsmouth, where he had prepared a considerable fleet and army, on which all the subsidies, given by parliament, had been expended. This supply had very much disappointed the King's expectations. The same mutinous spirit, which prevailed in the house of commons, had diffused itself over the nation; and the commissioners, appointed for making the assessments, had connived at all frauds, which might diminish the supply, and reduce the crown to still greater necessities. This national discontent, communicated to a desperate enthusiast, soon broke out in an event, which may be considered as very remarkable.

There was one Felton, of a good family, but of an ardent, melancholic temper, who had served under the Duke, in the station of a lieutenant. His captain being killed in the retreat at the isle of Rhé, Felton had sollicited for the company; and when disappointed, he threw up his commission, and retired in discontent from the army. While private resentment was boiling in his sullen, unsociable mind, he heard the nation resound with complaints against the Duke; and he met with the remonstrance of the commons, where his enemy was represented as the cause of every national grievance, and as the great enemy of the public. Religious

fanaticism farther inflamed these vindictive reflections; and he fancied, that he would do heaven acceptable service, if, at one blow, he dispatched this dangerous foe to religion and to his country. Full of these dark views, he secretly arrived at Portsmouth, at the same time with the Duke, and watched for an opportunity of effecting his bloody purpose.

Buckingham had been engaged in conversation with Soubize and other French gentlemen; and a difference of sentiments having arisen, the dispute, tho' conducted with temper and decency, had produced some of those vehement gesticulations and lively exertions of voice, in which that nation, more than the English, are apt to indulge themselves. The conversation being finished, the Duke drew towards the door; and in that very passage, turning himself to speak to Sir Thomas Fryar, a collonel in the army, he was, on the sudden, over Sir Thomas's shoulder, struck upon the breast with a knife. Without uttering other words than *The villain has killed me;* in the same moment, pulling out the knife, he breathed his last.

No man had seen the blow, nor the person, who gave it; but in the confusion, every one made his own conjecture; and all agreed, that the murder had been committed by the French gentlemen, whose angry tone of voice had been heard, while their words had not been understood, by the byestanders. In the hurry of revenge, they had instantly been put to death, had they not been saved by some of more temper and judgment, who, tho' they had the same opinion of their guilt, thought proper to reserve them for a judicial trial and examination.

Near the door, there was found a hat, in the inside of which was sowed a paper, where four or five lines were writ of that remonstrance of the commons, which declared Buckingham an enemy to the kingdom; and under these lines was a short ejaculation or attempt towards a prayer. It was easily concluded, that this hat belonged to the assassin: But the difficulty still remained; *Who that person should be?* For the writing discovered not the name; and whoever he

was, it was natural to believe, that he had already fled far enough, not to be found without a hat.

In this hurry, a man without a hat was seen walking very composedly before the door. One crying out, *Here is the fellow, who killed the Duke;* every body ran to ask, *Which is he?* The man very sedately answered, *I am he.* The more furious immediately rushed upon him with drawn swords: Others, more deliberate, defended and protected him: He himself, with open arms, very calmly and chearfully exposed his breast to the swords of the most enraged; being willing to fall a sudden sacrifice to their anger, rather than be reserved for that public justice, which he knew must be executed upon him.

He was now known to be that Felton, who had served in the army. Being carried into a private room, it was thought proper so far to dissemble as to tell him, that Buckingham was only grievously wounded, but not without hopes of recovery. Felton smiled, and told them, that the Duke, he knew full well, had received a blow, which had terminated all their hopes. When asked, at whose instigation he had performed that horrid deed, he answered, that they needed not trouble themselves in that inquiry; that no man living had credit enough with him to have disposed him to such an action; that he had not even entrusted his purpose to any one; that the resolution proceeded only from himself and the impulse of his own conscience; and that his motives would appear, if his hat was found: For that, believing he would perish in the attempt, he had there taken care to write them.

When the King was informed of this assassination, he received the news in public with an unmoved and undisturbed countenance; and the byestanders, who studied his looks, concluded, that secretly he was not displeased to be rid of a minister, so generally odious to the nation. But Charles's command of himself proceeded intirely from the gravity and composure of his temper. He was still, as much as ever, attached to his favorite; and, during his whole life, he retained an affection for Buckingham's friends, and a

prejudice against his enemies. He urged too, that Felton should be put to the question, in order to extort from him a discovery of his accomplices: But the judges declared, that, tho' that practice had been formerly not unusual, it was altogether illegal. So much more punctilious reasoners, with regard to law, had they become, from the jealous scruples of the house of commons.

Mean while the distress of Rochelle had risen to the utmost extremity. That vast genius of Richelieu, which made him form the greatest enterprizes, led him to attempt their execution, by means equally great and extraordinary. In order to deprive Rochelle of all succor, he had dared to project the throwing a-cross the harbour a mole of a mile's extent in that boistrous ocean; and having executed his project, he now held the town closely blockaded on all sides. The inhabitants, tho' pressed with the greatest rigors of famine, still refused to submit; being supported, partly by the lectures of their zealous preachers, partly by the daily hopes of assistance from England. After Buckingham's death, the command of the fleet and army was conferred on the Earl of Lindefey; who, arriving before Rochelle, made some attempts to break thro' the mole, and force his way into the town: But by the delays of the English, that work was now fully finished and fortified; and the Rochellers, finding their last hopes to fail them, were reduced to surrender at discretion, even in sight of the English admiral. Of 15,000 persons, who had been shut up in the town, 4,000 alone survived the fatigues and famine, which they had undergone. Such mighty influence had the religious spirit over that sect; and so much did it overbalance in their breasts every motive of self preservation, of duty to their prince, and of regard to their native country!

This was the first necessary step towards the prosperity of France. Foreign enemies, as well as domestic factions, being deprived of this resource, that kingdom began now to shine forth in its full splendor. By a steddy prosecution of wise plans, both of war and policy, it gradually gained an ascendant over the rival power of Spain; and every order of the

state and every sect were reduced to pay submission to the lawful authority of the sovereign. The victory, however, over the hugonots was, at first, pushed by the French King with great moderation. A toleration was still continued to them; the only avowed and open toleration, which, at that time, was granted in any European kingdom.

The failure of an enterprize, where the English nation, from religious sympathy, so much interested themselves, could not but diminish the King's authority in the parliament during the approaching session: But the commons, when assembled, found many other causes of complaint. Buckingham's conduct and character, with some had been a reason, with others a pretext, for discontent against public measures: But after his death, there wanted not new reasons and new pretexts for general dissatisfaction. Manwaring's pardon and promotion were taken notice of: Sibthorpe and Cosins, two clergymen, who, for like reasons, were equally disagreeable to the commons, had met with like favor from the King: Montague, who had been censured for moderation to the catholics, the greatest of crimes, had been created bishop of Chichester. They found, likeways, upon inquiry, that all the copies of the petition of right, which were dispersed, had, by the King's orders, annexed to them the first answer, which had given so little satisfaction to the commons. A poor artifice of Charles! As if he could, by this means, persuade the people, that he had no way receded from any of his former claims and pretensions, or as if the prevalence of such an opinion could be of any advantage to him. Selden too complained in the house, that one Savage, contrary to the petition of right, had been punished with the loss of his ears, by a discretionary or arbitrary sentence of the star-chamber. So ready were they, on their part, to stretch the petition into such consequences as might deprive the crown of powers, which, from immemorial custom, were supposed inherent in it.

But the great article, on which the house of commons split with the King, and which finally created in Charles a

disgust to all parliaments, was the claim of tonnage and poundage. On this occasion, therefore, it is necessary to give an account of that controversy.

The duty of tonnage and poundage, in more antient times, had been commonly a temporary grant of the parliament; but, on Henry VI and all the succeeding princes, it had been conferred during life, in order to enable them to maintain a naval force for the protection of the kingdom. The necessity of levying this duty had been so apparent, that each king had ever claimed it from the moment of his accession; and the first parliament of each reign had ever by vote, conferred on the prince what they found him already in possession of. Suitable to the inaccurate genius of the old constitution, this abuse, however considerable, was never perceived nor remedied; tho' nothing could have been easier than for the parliament to have prevented it. By granting this duty to each prince, during his own life, and, for a year after his decease, to the successor, all inconveniences had been obviated; and yet the duty had never, for a moment, been levied without proper authority. But contrivances of that nature were not dreamed of during those rude ages: And, as so complicated and jealous a government as the English cannot subsist without many such refinements; it is easy to see, how favorable every inaccuracy must formerly have proved to the royal authority, which, on all emergencies, was obliged to supply, by discretionary power, the great deficiency of the laws.

During that short interval, which elapsed, betwixt Charles's accession and his first parliament, he had followed the example of his predecessors; and no fault was found with his conduct in this particular. But what was most remarkable in the proceedings of that house of commons, and what proved beyond controversy, that they had seriously formed a plan for reducing their prince to dependance, was, that, instead of granting this supply during the King's life, as it had been enjoyed by all his immediate predecessors, they voted it only for a year; and, after that should be elapsed, reserved to themselves the power of re-

newing or refusing the same concession. But the house of peers, who saw that this duty was now become more necessary than ever to supply the growing necessities of the crown, and who approved not of this encroaching spirit of the commons, rejected the bill; and the dissolution of that parliament followed so soon after, that no attempt seems to have been made for the obtaining tonnage and poundage in any other form.<sup>3</sup>

Charles, mean while, continued still to levy these duties by his own authority; and the nation was so accustomed to this exertion of royal power, that no scruple was, at first, entertained of submitting to it. But the succeeding parliament excited doubts in every one. The commons made there some steps towards declaring it illegal to levy tonnage and poundage without consent of parliament, and they openly showed their intention of employing this engine, in order to extort from the crown concessions of the most important nature. But Charles was not yet sufficiently tamed to compliance; and the abrupt dissolution of the parliament, as above related, put an end, for the time, to their farther pretensions.

The following interval, betwixt the second and third parliament, was distinguished by so many open and flagrant violations of public liberty, that men had little leizure to attend to this affair of tonnage and poundage, where the abuse of power in the crown might seem to be of a more disputable nature. But after the commons, during the precedent session, had remedied all these grievances by means of their petition of right, which was become so necessary; they

3. The reason, assigned by Sir Philip Warwick, for this unusual measure of the commons, is, that they intended to deprive the crown of the prerogative, which it had assumed, of laying on impositions, and, at the same time, were resolved to cut off the new impositions laid on by James. These were considerable diminutions both of revenue and prerogative; and whether they would have there stopt, considering their present disposition, may appear somewhat uncertain. The King, it seems, and the lords were resolved not to trust them; nor to render a revenue once precarious, which perhaps they might never afterwards be able to get re-established on the old footing.

afterwards proceeded to take this matter into consideration, and they showed the same intention of exacting, in return for the grant of this revenue, very large compliances on the side of the crown. Their sudden prorogation prevented them from bringing their pretensions to a full conclusion.

When Charles opened this session, he had foreseen, that the same controversy would arise; and he therefore took care, very early, among many mild and reconciling expressions, to inform the commons, 'That he had not taken these duties as appertaining to his hereditary prerogative; but that it ever was, and still is his meaning to enjoy them as a gift of his people: And that, if he had hitherto levied tonnage and poundage, he pretended to justify himself only by the necessity of so doing, not by any right, which he assumed.' This concession, which probably proceeded from the King's moderate temper, now free'd from the impulse of Buckingham's violent councils, might have satisfied the commons, had they entertained no other view, than that of ascertaining their own rights and privileges. But they carried their pretensions much higher. They insisted, as a requisite preliminary, that the King should once desist from levying these duties; after which they were to take into consideration, how far they would restore him to the possession of a revenue, of which he had clearly divested himself. But besides that this extreme rigor had never been exercised towards any of his predecessors, and many obvious prejudices must follow the intermission of the customs; there were other reasons, which deterred Charles from complying with so hard a condition. It was probable, that the commons might renew their former project of making this revenue only temporary, and thereby reducing their prince to perpetual servitude; they certainly would cut off all the new impositions, which Mary and Elizabeth, but especially James had levied, and which formed no despicable part of the public revenue; and they openly declared, that they had, at present, many important pretensions, chiefly with regard to religion; and if compliance was refused, no supply must be expected from the commons.

It is easy to see in what an inextricable labyrinth Charles was now engaged. By his own concessions, by the principles of the English government, and by the form of every bill, which had granted this duty, tonnage and poundage was derived entirely from the free gift of the people; and, by consequence, might be withdrawn at their pleasure. If unreasonable in their refusal, they still refused nothing but what was their own. If public necessity required this supply, it also required the King's compliance with those conditions, which were the price of acquiring it. Tho' the motive of granting it had been the enabling the King to guard the seas; it followed not, that, because he guarded the seas, he was therefore entitled to this revenue, without any farther formality; since the people had still reserved to themselves the right of judging how far that service merited such a supply. But Charles, notwithstanding his public declaration, was far from assenting to this conclusion, in its full extent. The plain consequence, he saw, of all these rigors, and refinements, and inferences, was, that he, without any public necessity, and without any default of his own, must, of a sudden, even from his first accession, become a magistrate of a very different nature from any of his predecessors, and must fall into a total dependance on subjects, over whom former kings, especially those immediately preceding, had exercised an authority almost unlimited. Entangled in a chain of consequences, which he could not easily break, he was inclined to go higher, and rather deny the first principle, than admit of conclusions, which to him appeared so absurd and unreasonable. Suitable to the ideas hitherto entertained both by natives and foreigners, the monarch he esteemed the essence and soul of the English government; and whatever other power pretended to annihilate or even abridge the royal authority, must necessarily, he thought, either in its nature or exercise, he deemed no better than an usurpation. Willing to preserve the antient harmony of the constitution, he had ever intended to comply, as far as he *easily* could, with the antient forms of administration: But when these forms appeared to him, by the inveterate

obstinacy of the commons, to have no other tendency than to disturb that harmony, and to introduce a new constitution; he concluded, that, in this violent situation, what was subordinate must necessarily yield to what was principal, and the privileges of the people, for a time, give way to royal prerogative. From the rank of a monarch to be degraded into a slave of his insolent subjects, seemed, of all indignities, the greatest; and nothing, in his judgment, could exceed the humiliation attending such a state, but the meanness of tamely submitting to it, without making some efforts to preserve the authority transmitted to him by his predecessors.

Tho' these were his reflections and resolutions before the parliament assembled, he did not immediately break with them, upon their delay of voting him this supply. He thought, that he could better justify any strong measure, which he might afterwards be obliged to take, if he allowed them to carry, to the utmost extremity, their attacks upon his government and prerogative. He contented himself for the present with solliciting the house by messages and speeches. But the commons, instead of hearkening to his solicitations, proceeded to carry their censorial scrutiny into his management of religion, which was the only grievance, to which they had not, as yet, by their petition of right, applied a sufficient remedy.

It was not possible, that this century, so fertile in religious sects and disputes, could escape the controversy concerning fatalism and free will, which, being deeply intermingled, both with philosophy and theology, had, in all ages, thrown every school and every church into such inextricable doubt and perplexity. The first reformers in England, as in other European countries, had embraced the most rigid tenets of predestination and absolute decrees, and had composed, upon that system, all the articles of their religious creed. But these principles having met with opposition from Arminius and his sectaries, the controversy was soon brought into this island, and began there to diffuse itself. The arminians, finding more encouragement from the superstitious spirit of

the church than from the fanaticism of the puritans, gradually incorporated themselves with the former; and some of that sect by the indulgence of James and Charles, had attained the highest offices and preferments in the hierarchy. But their success with the public had not been altogether answerable to that which they met with in the church and the court. Thro'out the nation, they still lay under the reproach of innovation and heresy. The commons now levelled against them their formidable censures, and made them the objects of daily invective and declamation. Their protectors were stigmatized; their tenets canvassed; their views represented as dangerous and pernicious. To impartial spectators surely, if any such had been, at that time, in England, it must have given sufficient entertainment, to see a popular assembly, enflamed with faction and enthusiasm, pretend to handle questions, for which the greatest philosophers, in the tranquillity of retreat, had never hitherto been able to find any satisfactory solution.

Amid that complication of disputes, in which men were involved, we may observe, that the appellation, *puritan*, stood for three parties, which, tho' commonly united together, were yet actuated by very different views and motives. There were the political puritans, who maintained the highest principles of civil liberty; the puritans in discipline, who were averse to the ceremonies and episcopal government of the church; and the doctrinal puritans, who rigidly defended the speculative system of the first reformers. In opposition to all these, stood, the court-party, the hierarchy, and the arminians; only with this distinction, that the latter sect, being introduced but a few years before, did not, as yet, comprehend all those who were favorable to the church and to monarchy. But as the controversies, on every subject, grew daily warmer, men united themselves more closely with their friends, and separated themselves wider from their antagonists; and the distinction gradually became quite uniform and regular.

This house of commons, which, like all the preceding ones, during the reigns of James and Charles, had been

much governed by the puritanical party, thought, that they could not better serve their cause, than by stigmatizing and punishing the arminian sect, which, introducing an innovation in the church, were the least favored and least powerful of all their antagonists. From this measure, it was easily foreseen, that, beside gratifying a bigotted animosity in the doctrinal puritans, both the puritans in discipline and those in politics would reap considerable advantages. Laud, Neile, Montague, and other bishops, who were the chief supporters of episcopal government and the most zealous partizans of the discipline and ceremonies of the church, were all supposed to be tainted with arminianism. The same men and their disciples were the strenuous preachers of passive obedience and of unlimited submission to princes; and if these could once be censured, and be expelled the church and court, it was concluded, that the ecclesiastical hierarchy would receive a mortal blow, the ceremonies be less rigidly insisted on, and the King, deprived of his most faithful friends, be obliged to abate those high claims of prerogative, on which at present he insisted.

But Charles, beside a view of the political conferences, which must result from a compliance with such pretensions, was strongly determined, from principles of piety and conscience, to oppose them. Neither the dissipation incident to youth, nor the pleasures attending a high fortune had been able to prevent this virtuous Prince from embracing the most sincere sentiments of religion; and that character, which, in that religious age, should have been of infinite advantage to him, proved, in the end, the chief cause of his ruin: Merely, because the religion, adopted by him, was not of that precise mode and sect, which began to prevail among his subjects. His piety, tho' remote from popery, had a tincture of superstition in it; and, being averse to the gloomy and fanatical extravagancies of the puritans, was represented by them as tending towards the abominations of anti-christ. Laud too had unfortunately acquired a great ascendant over him: And as all those prelates, aimed at by the commons, were regarded as his chief friends and most

favored courtiers; he was resolved not to disarm and disonor himself, by abandoning them to the resentment of his enemies.

In the debates of the commons, which are transmitted to us, 'tis easy to discern so early some sparks of that enthusiastic fire, which afterwards set the whole nation in combustion. One Rouse made use of an allusion, which, tho' low, seems to have been borrowed, from the writings of Lord Bacon. 'If a man meet a dog alone,' said he, 'the dog is fearful, tho' never so fierce by nature: But, if the dog have his master with him, he will set upon that man, from whom he fled before. This shows, that lower natures, being backed by higher, encrease in courage and strength; and certainly man, being backed with omnipotency, is a kind of omnipotent creature. All things are possible to him that believes; and where all things are possible, there is a kind of omnipotency. Wherefore, let it be the unanimous consent and resolution of us all to make a vow and covenant from henceforth to hold fast our God and our religion; and then shall we from henceforth expect with certainty happiness in this world.'

Oliver Cromwel, at that time, a young man, of no account in the nation, is mentioned in these debates, as complaining of one, who, he was told, preached flat popery. 'Tis amusing to observe the first words of this fanatical hypocrite correspond so exactly to his character.

The enquiries and debates concerning tonnage and poundage went hand in hand with these theological or metaphysical controversies. The officers of the custom-house were summoned before the commons to give an account by what authority they had seized the goods of merchants, who paid not these duties: The barons of the exchequer were questioned concerning their decrees on that head: The sheriff of London was committed to the tower for his activity in supporting the officers of the custom-house: The goods of Rolles, a merchant, and member of the house, being seized for his refusal to pay the duties, complaints were made of this violence, as if it were a breach of

privilege: Charles avowed his officers in all these measures; and the quarrel grew every day higher betwixt him and the commons. Mention was made in the house of impeaching Sir Richard Weston, Lord treasurer; and the King began to entertain thoughts of finishing the session by a dissolution.

Sir John Elliot framed a remonstrance against levying tonnage and poundage without consent of parliament, and offered it to the clerk to read. It was refused. He red it himself. The question being then called for, the speaker, Sir John Finch, said, *That he had a command from the King to adjourn, and to put no question.* Upon which he rose and left the chair. The whole house was in an uproar. The speaker was pushed back into the chair, and forcibly held in it by Holles and Valentine, till a short remonstrance was framed, and was passed by acclamation rather than by vote. Papists and arminians were there declared capital enemies to the commonwealth. Those, who levied tonnage and poundage, were branded with the same epithet. And even the merchants, who should voluntarily pay these duties, were denominated betrayers of English liberty, and public enemies. The doors being locked, the gentleman-usher of the house of lords, who was sent by the King, could get no admittance, till this remonstrance was finished. By the King's order, he took the mace from the table, which ended their proceedings. And a few days afterwards, the parliament was dissolved.

The discontents of the nation ran extremely high, on account of this violent rupture betwixt King and parliament. These discontents Charles very imprudently inflamed by his affectation of a severity, which he had not power, nor, probably, will, to carry to extremity. Sir Miles Hobart, Sir Peter Hayman, Selden, Coriton, Long, Strode, were committed to prison, on account of the last tumult, which was called sedition. With great difficulty, and after several delays, they were released; and the law was generally supposed to be wrested, in order to prolong their imprisonment. Sir John Elliot, Holles, and Valentine, were summoned to their trial in the king's bench, for seditious speeches and behavior in

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parliament; but refusing to answer before an inferior court for their conduct, as members of a superior, they were condemned to imprisonment during the King's pleasure, to find sureties for their good behavior, and to be fined, the two former a thousand pound a-piece, the latter five hundred. This illegal sentence, procured by the influence of the crown, served only to show the King's disregard to all the privileges of parliament, and to acquire an immense stock of popularity to the sufferers, who had so bravely, in opposition to arbitrary power, defended the liberties of their native country. The commons of England, tho' an immense body, and possessed of the greatest property of the kingdom, were naturally somewhat defenceless; because of their equality and their want of leaders: But the King's severity, if these illegal prosecutions deserve the name, here pointed out leaders to them, whose resentment was enflamed, and whose courage was no way daunted, by the hardships which they had undergone in so honorable a cause.

So much did all these prisoners glory in their sufferings, that they would not condescend even to present a petition to the King, expressing their sorrow for having offended him. They unanimously refused to find sureties for their good behavior; and disdained to accept of deliverance on such easy terms. Nay, Holles was so industrious to continue his meritorious distress, that when one offered his bail for him, he would not yield to the rule of court, and be himself bound with his friend. Even Long, who had actually found sureties in the chief justices chamber, declared in court, that his sureties should no longer continue. Yet because Sir John Elliot happened to die, while in custody, a great clamor was raised against the administration, and he was universally regarded as a martyr to the liberties of England.

### CHAP. III

*Peace with France — Peace with Spain — State of the court and ministry — Character of the Queen — Strafford — Laud — Innovations in the church — Irregular levies of money — Severities in the star-chamber and high commission — Ship-money — Trial of Hambden*

THERE now opens to us a new scene. Charles, disgusted with parliaments, was resolved not to call any more, till he should see greater symptoms of a compliant disposition in the nation. Having lost his great favorite, Buckingham, he became his own minister; and never afterwards conferred on any one such unlimited confidence. As he chiefly follows his own genius and disposition, his measures are henceforth less rash and violent; tho' the general tenor of his administration still wants much of being entirely legal, and more of being entirely prudent.

We shall endeavor to exhibit a just idea of the events, which followed for some years; so far as they regard foreign affairs, the state of the court, and the government of the nation. The incidents are not numerous nor illustrious; but the knowledge of them is quite requisite for understanding the subsequent transactions, which are so memorable.

Charles, destitute of all supply, was obliged from necessity to embrace a measure, which should have been the result of reason and sound politics: He made peace with the two crowns, against whom he had hitherto waged a war, so unnecessary and so inglorious. Notwithstanding the distracted and helpless condition of England, no attempt was made, either by France or Spain, to invade their enemy; nor did they entertain any farther project than to defend themselves against the feeble and ill concerted expeditions of that kingdom. Pleased that the jealousies and quarrels betwixt King and parliament had disarmed so formidable a power, they carefully avoided any enterprize, which might

rouze either the terror or anger of the English, and dispose them to domestic union and submission. The endeavors to regain the good will of the nation was carried so far by the Spaniard, that he generously released and sent home all the English prisoners, whom he had taken in the expedition against Cadiz. The example was imitated by France, after the retreat of the English from the isle of Rhé. When princes were in such dispositions, and had so few pretensions on each other, it could not be difficult to conclude a peace. The treaty was first signed with France. The situation of the King's affairs did not entitle him to demand any conditions for the hugonots, and they were abandoned to the will of their sovereign. Peace was afterwards concluded with Spain; where no conditions were made in favor of the Palatine, except that Spain promised in general to use her good offices for his restoration. The influence of these two wars on domestic affairs, and on the dispositions of King and people was of the utmost consequence: But no alteration was made by them on the foreign interests of the kingdom.

Nothing more happy can be imagined than the situation, in which England then stood with regard to foreign affairs. Europe was divided betwixt the rival families of Bourbon and Austria, whose opposite interests, and still more, their mutual jealousies, secured the tranquillity of this island. Their forces were so nearly counterpoized, that no apprehensions were entertained of any event, which could suddenly disturb the ballance of power betwixt them. The Spanish monarch, esteemed the most powerful, lay at greatest distance; and the English, by that means, possessed the advantage of being engaged by political motives, into a closer union and confederacy with the neighboring potentate. The dispersed dominions of Spain gave great hold to the naval power of England; and kept that empire in continual dependance. France, more vigorous and more compact, was, every day, rising in policy and discipline; and reached at last an equality of power with the house of Austria: but her progress, slow and gradual, left it still in the power of England, by a timely interposal, to check her superiority. And,

thus Charles, had he happily avoided all dissensions with his own subjects, was in a situation to make himself be courted and respected by every power in Europe; and, what since has scarce ever been attained by the princes of this island, he could either be active with dignity or neutral with security.

A neutrality was embraced by the King; and during the rest of his reign, he seems little to have regarded foreign affairs, except so far as he was engaged, by honor and by friendship for his sister and the Palatine, to endeavor the procuring some relief for that unhappy family. He joined his good offices to those of France, and mediated a peace betwixt the Kings of Sweden and Poland, in hopes of engaging the former to embrace the protection of the oppressed protestants in the empire. This was the famed Gustavus, whose heroic genius, seconded by the truest politics, made him, in a little time, the most distinguished monarch of the age, and rendered his country, formerly unknown and neglected, of great weight in the ballance of Europe. To encourage and assist him in his projected invasion of Germany, Charles agreed to furnish him with six thousand men; but that he might preserve the appearance of neutrality, he made use of the Marquis of Hamilton's name, a Nobleman allied to the crown. Hamilton entered into an engagement with Gustavus; and inlisting these troops in England and Scotland at Charles's expence, he landed them in the Elbe. The decisive battle of Leipsic was fought soon after; where the conduct of Tilly and valor of the imperialists were overcome by the superior conduct of Gustavus and superior valor of the Swedes. What remained of this hero's life was one continued series of victory, for which he was less beholden to fortune, than to those personal endowments, which he derived from nature and from industry. That rapid progress of conquest, which we so much admire in antient history, was here renewed in modern annals; and without that cause, to which, in former ages, it had ever been owing. Military nations were not now engaged against an undisciplined and unwarlike people; nor heroes set in

opposition to cowards. The veteran troops of Ferdinand, conducted by the most celebrated generals of the age, were foiled in every encounter, and all Germany was overrun in an instant, by the victorious Swede. But by this extraordinary and unexpected success of his ally, Charles failed of the purpose, for which he framed the alliance. Gustavus elated by prosperity, began to form more extensive plans of ambition; and in freeing Germany from the yoke of Ferdinand, he intended to reduce it to subjection under his own. The Palatine he refused to restore to his dominions but on conditions, which would have kept him in total dependance. And thus the negotiation was protracted; till the battle of Lutzen, where the Swedish monarch perished in the midst of a compleat victory, which he obtained over his enemies.

We have carried on these transactions a few years beyond the present period, that we might not be obliged to return to them; nor be henceforth interrupted in our account of Charles's court and kingdoms.

When we consider Charles, as presiding in his court, as associated with his family, it is difficult to imagine a character, at once more respectable and more amiable. A kind husband, an indulgent father, a gentle master, a stedfast friend; to all these eulogies, by his conduct in private life, he was fully intitled. As a monarch too, in the exterior qualities he excelled; in the essential, he was not defective. His address and manner, tho' perhaps inclining a little towards stateliness and formality, in the main correspond to his high rank, and gave grace to that reserve and gravity, which were natural to him. The moderation and equity, which shone forth in his temper, *seemed* to secure him against rash and dangerous enterprizes: The good sense, which he displayed in his discourse and conversation, *seemed* to warrant his success in every reasonable undertaking. Other endowments too he enjoyed, which, in a private gentleman, would have been highly ornamental, and which, in a great monarch, might have proved extremely useful to his people. He was possessed of an excellent taste in all the fine arts; and the love of painting was, in some degree, his favorite

passion. Learned beyond what is common in princes, he was a good judge of writing in others, and enjoyed, himself, no mean talent in composition. In every other age, or nation, this monarch had been secure of a prosperous and a happy reign. But the high idea of his own authority, with which he had been imbued, made him incapable of submitting prudently to the spirit of liberty, which began to prevail among his subjects. His politics were not supported with such vigor and foresight as might enable him to subdue their privileges, and maintain his prerogative at the high pitch, to which he had raised it. And above all, the spirit of enthusiasm, being universally diffused over the nation, disappointed all the views of human prudence, and disturbed the operation of every motive, which usually influence society.

But the misfortunes, produced by these causes, were yet remote. Charles now enjoyed himself in the full exercise of his authority, in a social intercourse with his friends and courtiers, and in a moderate use of those pleasures, which he most affected.

After the death of Buckingham, who had somewhat alienated Charles from her, the Queen is to be considered as his chief friend and favorite. That rustic contempt of the fair sex, which James affected, and which, banishing them from his court, made it resemble more a fair or an exchange, that the seat of a great prince, was very wide of the disposition of this monarch. But tho' full of complaisance to the whole sex, Charles reserved all his passion for the Queen, to whom he attached himself with unshaken fidelity and confidence. By her sense and spirit, as well as by her beauty, she justified the fondness of her husband; tho' it is allowed, that, being somewhat of a passionate temper, she precipitated him into hasty and imprudent councils. Her religion too, to which she was much addicted, must be regarded as a great misfortune; since it augmented the jealousy, which prevailed against the court, and engaged her to procure, for the catholics, indulgences, which were generally distasteful to the nation.

In the former situation of the English government, when the sovereign was, in a great measure, independent of his subjects, the king chose his ministers, either from personal favor or from an opinion of their ability; without any regard to their parliamentary interest or talents. It has since been the maxim of princes, where-ever popular leaders encroach too much on royal authority, to confer offices on them; in expectation, that they will afterwards become more careful not to diminish that power, which has become their own. These politics were now embraced by Charles; a sure symptom, that a secret revolution had happened in the constitution, and had necessitated the prince to adopt new maxims of government. But the views of the King were, at this time, so remote from those of the puritans, that the leaders, whom he gained, lost, from that moment, all interest with their party, and were even pursued as traitors, with implacable hatred and resentment. This was the case with Sir Thomas Wentworth, whom the King created, first a baron, then a viscount, and afterwards Earl of Strafford; made him president of the council of York and Lord lieutenant of Ireland; and regarded him as his chief minister and counsellor. By his eminent talents and abilities, Strafford merited all the confidence, which the King reposed in him: His character was stately and austere; more fitted to procure esteem than love: His fidelity to his master was unshaken; but as he now employed all his councils to support the prerogative, which he had formerly bent all his endeavors to diminish, his virtue seems not to have been entirely pure, but to have been susceptible of strong impressions from private interest and ambition. Sir Dudley Diggs was, about the same time, created master of the rolls: Noy, attorney-general: Littleton, sollicitor-general. All these had been likeways parliamentary leaders; and were men very eminent in their profession.

In all ecclesiastical affairs, and even in many civil, Laud, bishop of London, had great influence on the King. This man was virtuous; if severity of manners alone and abstinence from pleasure could deserve that name. He was

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learned, if ecclesiastical knowlege could intitle him to that praise. He was disinterested; but with unceasing industry he studied to exalt the priestly and prelatical character, which was his own. His zeal was unrelenting in the cause of religion; that is, in imposing, by the most rigorous measures, his own tenets and pious ceremonies on the obstinate puritans, who had profanely dared to oppose him. In prosecution of his holy purposes, he over-looked every human consideration; or, in other words, the heat and indiscretion of his temper made him neglect all views of prudence and all rules of good manners. He was, in this respect, happy, that all his enemies were also declared enemies to loyalty and true piety, and that every exercise of his revenge, by that means, became a merit and a virtue. This was the man, who acquired so great an ascendant over Charles, and led him, by the superstition of his temper, into a conduct, which proved so fatal to himself and to his kingdoms.

The humor of the nation ran, at that time, into the extreme opposite to superstition; and it was with difficulty, that the antient ceremonies, to which men had been accustomed, and which had been sanctified by the practice of the first reformers, could be retained in divine service: Yet was this the time, which Laud chose for the introduction of new ceremonies and observances. Besides that these were sure to displease as innovations, there lay, in the opinion of the public, another very forcible objection against them. Laud and the other prelates, who embraced his measures, were generally well instructed in sacred antiquity, and had adopted all those religious sentiments, which prevailed during the third, fourth, and fifth centuries; when the christian church, as is well known, was already deep sunk into those superstitions, which were afterwards continued and augmented by the policy of Rome. The revival, therefore, of the ideas and practices of that age could not fail of giving the English faith and liturgy some air of resemblance to the catholic superstition, which the kingdom in general, and the puritans in particular, held in the greatest horror and detestation. Men too were apt to think, that, without some

secret purpose, such insignificant observances would not be imposed with such unrelenting zeal on the refractory spirit of the nation; and that Laud's scheme was to lead the English, by gradual steps, back to the religion of their ancestors. They considered not, that the very insignificancy of these ceremonies recommended them to the superstitious prelate, and made them appear the more peculiarly sacred and religious, that they could serve no other purpose in life. Nor was the resemblance to the Romish ritual any objection, but rather a merit, with Laud and his brethren; who bore a much greater kindness to the mother-church, as they called her, than to the sectaries and presbyterians, and frequently recommended her as a true christian church; an appellation, which they refused, or at least scrupled, to the others. So openly were these tenets espoused, that not only the malignant and discontented puritans believed the church of England to be relapsing fast into Romish superstition: The court of Rome itself entertained hopes of regaining its authority in this island; and, in order to forward Laud's good intentions, an offer was twice made him, in private, of a Cardinal's hat, which he declined accepting. His answer was, as he says himself, *That something dwelt within him, which would not suffer his compliance, till Rome was other than it is.*

A court lady, daughter of the Earl of Devonshire, having turned catholic, was asked by Laud the reasons of her conversion. '*Tis chiefly*, said she, *because I hate to travel in a crowd.* The meaning of this expression being desired, she replied, *I perceive your Grace and many others are making haste to Rome; and therefore, in order to prevent my being crowded, I have gone before you.* It must be confessed, that, tho' Laud deserved not the appellation of papist, the genius of his religion was, tho' in a less degree, yet the same with that of the Romish: The same profound respect was demanded to the sacerdotal character, the same submission required to the creeds and decrees of synods and councils, the same pomp and ceremony was affected in worship, and the same superstitious regard to days, postures, meats, and

vestments. No wonder, therefore, that this prelate was, every where, among the puritans, regarded with horror, as the forerunner of antichrist.

As a specimen of the new ceremonies, to which Laud sacrificed his own quiet and that of the nation, it may not be amiss to relate those, which he was accused of employing in the consecration of St Catherine's church, and which were the object of such general scandal and offence.

On the bishop's approach to the west door of the church, a loud voice cried, *Open, open, ye everlasting doors, that the king of glory may enter in!* Immediately the doors of the church flew open, and the bishop entered. Falling upon his knees, with eyes elevated and arms expanded, he uttered these words: *This place is holy; the ground is holy: In the name of the father, son, and holy ghost, I pronounce it holy.*

Going towards the chancel, he, several times, took up from the floor some of the dust, and threw it into the air. When he approached, along with his attendants, near to the communion-table, he bowed frequently towards it: And on their return, they went round the church, repeating as they marched along, some of the psalms: And then said a form of prayer, which concluded with these words: *We consecrate this church, and separate it unto thee as holy ground, not to be profaned any more to common uses.*

After this, the bishop, standing near the communion-table, solemnly pronounced many imprecations upon such as should afterwards pollute that holy place by musters of soldiers, or keeping in it profane law-courts, or carrying burthens thro' it. On the conclusion of every curse, he bowed towards the east, and cried, *Let all the people say, amen.*

The imprecations being all so piously finished, there were poured out a number of blessings upon such as had any hand in framing and building that sacred and beautiful edifice, and on such as had given or should hereafter give to it any chalices, plate, ornaments, or utensils. At every benediction, he, in like manner, bowed towards the east, and cried, *Let all the people say, amen.*

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The sermon succeeded; after which, the bishop consecrated and administered the sacrament, in the following manner:

As he approached the communion-table, he made many lowly reverences: And coming up to that part of the table, where the bread and wine lay, he bowed seven times. After the reading of many prayers, he approached the sacramental elements, and gently lifted up the corner of the napkin, in which the bread was laid. When he beheld the bread, he suddenly let fall the napkin, flew back a step or two, bowed three several times towards the bread; then he drew near again, and opened the napkin, and bowed as before.

Next, he laid his hand on the cup, which had a cover upon it, and was full of wine. He let go the cup, fell back, and bowed thrice towards it. He approached again; and lifting up the cover, peeped into the cup. Seeing the wine, he let fall the cover, started back, and bowed as before. Then he received the sacrament, and gave it to others. And many prayers being said, the solemnity of the consecration ended. The walls and floor and roof of the fabric were then supposed to be sufficiently holy.

Orders were given, and rigorously insisted on, that the communion-table should be removed from the middle of the area, where it hitherto stood in all churches, except in cathedrals. It was placed in the east end, railed in, and denominated an ALTAR; as the clergyman, who officiated, received commonly the appellation of PRIEST. 'Tis not easy to imagine the discontents, excited by this innovation, and the suspicions, which it gave rise to.

The kneeling at the altar, and the using of copes, a species of embroidered vestment, in administering the sacrament, was also known to be a great object of scandal, as being popish practices: But the opposition rather increased, than abated the zeal of the prelate, for the introduction of these ceremonies.

All kinds of ornament, particularly pictures, were requisite for supporting that mechanical devotion, which was proposed to be raised in this model of religion: But as these

had been so much employed by the church of Rome, and had given rise to so much superstition, or what the puritans called idolatry; it was impossible to introduce them into English churches, without exciting the most general murmurs and complaints. But Laud, possessed of present authority, persisted in his purpose, and made several attempts towards acquiring these ornaments. Some of the pictures, introduced by him, were also found, upon inquiry, to be the very same, which might be met with in the mass-book. The crucifix too, that eternal consolation of all pious catholics, and terror to all sound protestants, was not forgot on this occasion.

It was much remarked, that Sherfield, the recorder of Salisbury, was tried in the star-chamber, for having carelessly broke, with his cane, some cracked panes of painted glass; while he gave orders for repairing the windows of St Edmond's church in that city. He was fined 500 pound, removed from his office, condemned to make a public acknowledgement, and be bound to his good behavior.

Not only such of the clergy, as neglected to observe every ceremony, were suspended and deprived by the high commission-court: Arbitrary oaths were, by many of the bishops, imposed on the church-wardens; and they were sworn to delate any one, who acted contrary to the ecclesiastical canons. Such a violent step, even had it not been illegal, would have given offence; as resembling too nearly the practice of the Romish inquisition.

To mark the greater alienation from the churches, reformed after the presbyterian model, Laud advised, that the discipline and worship of the church should be imposed on the English regiments and trading companies abroad. All foreigners of the Dutch and Walloon congregations were commanded to attend the established church; and indulgence was granted to none after the first descent. Scudamore too, the King's ambassador at Paris, had orders to withdraw himself from the communion of the hugonots. Even men of sense were apt to blame this conduct, not only because it gave offence in England, but because, in foreign

countries, it lost the crown the advantage of being esteemed the head and support of the reformation.

Under pretext of pacifying disputes, orders were issued from the council, forbidding, on both sides, all preaching and printing with regard to the controverted points of predestination and free-will. But it was complained of, and probably with reason, that the impartiality was altogether confined to the orders, and that the execution of them was only meant against the calvinists.

In return to Charles's indulgence towards the church, Laud and his followers took care to magnify, on every occasion, the regal authority, and to treat, with the utmost disdain or detestation, all puritanical pretensions to a free and independent constitution. But, while these prelates were so liberal in raising the crown at the expense of public liberty, they made no scruple of incroaching, themselves, on the royal rights the most incontestable; in order to exalt the hierarchy, and procure to their own order dominion and independance. All the doctrines, which the Romish church had borrowed from some of the early fathers, and which free'd the spiritual from subordination to the civil power, were now adopted by the church of England, and interwoven with her political and religious tenets. A divine and apostolical charter was insisted on, preferably to a legal and parliamentary one: The sacerdotal character was magnified as sacred and indeseizable: All right to spiritual authority, or even to private judgment in spiritual subjects, was refused to profane laymen: Ecclesiastical courts were held by the bishops in their own name, without any notice taken of the King's authority: And Charles, tho' extremely jealous of every claim in popular assemblies, seemed rather to encourage, than repress, those encroachments in his clergy. Having felt some sensible inconveniences from the independent spirit of parliaments, he attached himself entirely to those, who professed a devoted obedience to his crown and person; nor did he foresee, that the ecclesiastical power, which he exalted, not admitting of any precise boundary, might in time become more dangerous to public

peace, and no less fatal to royal prerogative, than the other.

So early as the coronation. Laud was the person, according to general opinion, who introduced a novelty, which, tho' overlooked by Charles, made a deep impression on many of the byestanders. After the usual ceremonies, these words were recited to the King: 'Stand and hold fast, from henceforth, the place, to which you have been heir by the succession of your forefathers, being now delivered to you by the authority of Almighty God, and by the hands of us and all the bishops and servants of God. And, as you see the clergy to come nearer the altar than others, so remember, that, in all places convenient, you give them greater honor; that the Mediator of God and man may establish you on the kingly throne, to be a mediator betwixt the clergy and the laity; and that you may reign for ever with Jesus Christ, the King of kings, and Lord of lords.'

The principles, which exalted prerogative, were not entertained by the King, merely as soft and agreeable to his royal ears: They were also put in practice during all the time, when he ruled without parliament. Tho' frugal and regular in his expenses, he wanted money for the support of government; and he levied it, either by the revival of obsolete laws, or by violations, some more open, some more disguised, of the privileges of the nation. Tho' humane and gentle in his temper, he gave way to severities in the star-chamber and high commission, which seemed requisite, in order to support the new model of administration, and repress the rising spirit of liberty thro'out the kingdom. Under these two heads, may be reduced all the remarkable transactions of this reign, during some years: For, in peaceable and prosperous times, where a neutrality in foreign affairs is observed, scarce any thing is remarkable, but what is, in some degree, blamed or blameable. And, left the hope of relief or protection from parliament might encourage opposition, Charles issued a proclamation, where he declared, That, 'whereas, for several ill ends, the calling again of a parliament is divulged; tho' his Majesty has shown, by frequent meeting with his people, his love to the use of par-

liaments: Yet the late abuse having, for the present, driven him unwillingly out of that course; he will account it presumption for any one to prescribe to him any time for the calling that assembly.' This was generally construed as a declaration, that, during this reign, no more parliaments were intended to be summoned. And every measure of the King confirmed a suspicion, so disagreeable to the generality of the people.

Tonnage and poundage were continued to be levied by the royal authority alone. The former arbitrary impositions were still exacted. Even new impositions were laid on several kinds of merchandise.

The custom-house officers received orders from the council to enter into any house, warehouse, or cellar; to search any trunk or chest; and to break any bulk whatever; in default of the payment of customs.

In order to exercise the militia, and keep them in good order, each county, by an edict of the council, was assessed at a certain sum, for the entertainment of a muster-master, appointed for that service.

Compositions were openly made with recusants, and the popish religion became a regular part of the revenue. This was all the persecution, which it underwent during the reign of Charles.

A commission was granted for compounding with such as were possessed of crown-lands upon defective titles; and, under this pretext, some money was exacted from the people.

There was a law of Edward II,<sup>1</sup> That whoever was possessed of twenty pounds a-year in land, should be obliged, when summoned, to appear and to receive the order of knighthood. Twenty pounds, at that time, partly by the change of denomination, partly by that in the value of money, was equivalent to 200 in the sixteenth and seventeenth century; and it seemed just, that the King should not insist strictly on the letter of the law, and oblige people of so small revenue to accept of that expensive honor. Edward

<sup>1.</sup> *Statutum de militibus.*

VI,<sup>2</sup> and Queen Elizabeth,<sup>3</sup> who had both of them made use of this expedient for raising money, had summoned only those possessed of forty pounds a-year and upwards to receive knighthood, or compound for their neglect; and Charles imitated their example, in granting the same indulgence. Commissioners were appointed for fixing the rates of composition; and, to these commissioners instructions were given, not to accept of a less sum than would have been due by the person, to a tax of three subsidies and a half. Nothing proves more plainly, how much indisposed the people were to the measures of the crown, than to observe that they loudly complained of an expedient founded on positive statute, and warranted by such recent precedents. The law was pretended to be obsolete; tho' only one reign had intervened, since the last execution of it.

Barnard, lecturer of St Sepulchres, London, had this expression in his prayer before sermon; *Lord, open the eyes of the Queen's Majesty, that she may see Jesus Christ, who she has pierced with her infidelity, superstition, and idolatry.* He was questioned in the high commission court; but, upon his submission, dismissed. Leighton, who had wrote scandalous libels against the King, the Queen, the bishops, and the whole administration, was condemned by a very severe, if not a cruel, sentence; but the execution of it was suspended for some time, in expectation of his submission.<sup>4</sup> All the severities, indeed, of this reign, were exercised against those, who triumphed in their sufferings, who courted persecution, and braved authority: And, upon that account, their punishment may be esteemed the more just, but the less prudent. To have neglected them intirely, had it been consistent with order and public safety, had been the wisest measure, which could have been embraced; as perhaps, it had been the most severe punishment, which could have been inflicted on these zealots.

In order to gratify the clergy with a magnificent fabric,

2. Rymer, tom. xv, p. 124.

3. Id. p. 493, 504.

4. Kennet's compleat history.

subscriptions were set on foot, for the repairing and rebuilding St Paul's; and the King, by his countenance and example, encouraged this laudable undertaking. By order of the privy council, St Gregory's church was removed, as an impediment to the project of extending and beautifying the cathedral. Some houses and shops likeways were pulled down; and compensation made to the proprietors. As there was no immediate prospect of assembling a parliament, such acts of power in the King became necessary; and in no former age would the people have entertained any scruple with regard to them. It must be remarked, that the ill-humored puritans were extremely averse to the raising this ornament to the capital. It favored, as they pretended, of popish superstition.

An office was erected for the sealing of cards: A new tax, which, of itself, was liable to no objection; but was of the most dangerous consequence, when considered as arbitrary and illegal.

Monopolies were revived; an oppressive method of levying taxes, being unlimited as well as destructive of industry. The last parliament of James, which abolished monopolies, had left a very equitable exception in favor of new inventions; and under pretext of these, and of erecting new companies and corporations, was this grievance now renewed. The manufacture of soap was given to a company, who paid a sum for their patent. Leather, salt, and many other commodities, even down to linnen rags, were likeways put under restrictions.

'Tis affirmed by Clarendon, that so little benefit was reaped from these projects, that of 200,000 pound levied from the people, scarce 1,500 came into the King's coffers. Tho' we ought not to suspect the noble historian of exaggerations to the disadvantage of Charles's measures; this fact, it must be owned, appears incredible. The same author adds, that the King's intention was to teach his subjects how unthrifty a thing it was to refuse reasonable supplies to the crown. A strange project! to offend a whole nation, under the view of punishment; and to hope, by acts of vio-

lence, to break their refractory spirits, without being possessed of any mercenary forces to prevent resistance.

The council of Yorke had been first erected, after a rebellion, by a patent from Henry VIII without any authority from parliament; and this exercise of power, like many others, was indulged to that arbitrary monarch. That council had long acted chiefly as a criminal court; but, beside some innovations, introduced by James, Charles thought proper, some time after Wentworth was made president, to extend their powers, and to give them a large civil jurisdiction, and that, in some respects, discretionary. 'Tis not improbable, that the King's intention was only to prevent inconveniences, which arose from the bringing every cause, from the most distant parts of the kingdom, into Westminster-hall: But the consequence, in the mean time, of this measure, was the putting all the northern counties out of the protection of law, and the subjecting them to arbitrary authority. Some irregular acts of that council were, this year, complained of.

The court of star-chamber extended very far their authority, and encroached upon the jurisdiction of all the other courts; imposing heavy fines and inflicting severe punishment, beyond the usual course of justice. Sir David Foulis was fined 5,000 pound, chiefly because he had dissuaded a friend from compounding with the commissioners of knighthood.

Prynne, a barrister of Lincolne's-Inn, had wrote an enormous quarto of a thousand pages, which he called *Histrion-Mastyx*. Its professed purpose was to decry stage-plays, comedies, interludes, music, dancing; but the author like-ways took occasion to declaim against hunting, public festivals, Christmas-keeping, bonefires, and May-poles. His zeal against all these levities, he says, was first moved, at observing, that plays fold better than the choicest sermons, and that they were frequently printed on finer paper than the Bible itself. Beside, that the players were often papists, and

desperately wicked; the play-houses, he affirms, are Satan's chapels, the play-haunters little better than incarnate devils, and so many paces to hell. The chief crime of Nero he represents to have been, his frequenting and acting of plays; and those, who nobly conspired his death, were principally moved to it, as he affirms, by their indignation at that enormity. The rest of his thousand pages were of a like strain. He had obtained a licence from Archbishop Abbot's chaplain; yet was he indicted in the star-chamber as a libeller. It was thought somewhat hard, that general invectives against plays should be interpreted into satyres against the King and Queen, merely because they frequented these amusements, and because the Queen sometimes acted a part in pastorals and interludes, which were represented at court. The author, it must be owned, had, in plainer terms, blamed the hierarchy, the innovations in religious worship, and the new superstitions, introduced by Laud; and this probably, along with the obstinacy of his behavior, was the reason why his sentence was so severe. He was condemned to be put from the bar; to stand in the pillory in two places, Westminster and Cheapside; to lose both his ears, one in each place; to pay 5000 pound fine to the King; and to be imprisoned during life.

This same Prynne was a great hero among the puritans; and it was chiefly with a view to mortify that sect, that, tho' of an honorable profession, the star-chamber condemned him to so ignominious a punishment. The thorow-paced puritans were distinguishable by the sowness and austerity of their manners, and by their aversion to all pleasure and society. To inspire them with better humor, both for their own sake and that of the public, was certainly a very laudable intention in the court; but, whether pillories, fines, and prisons, were proper expedients for that purpose, may admit of some question.

Another expedient, which the King tried, in order to infuse cheerfulness into the national devotion, was not much more successful. He renewed his father's edict for allowing sports and recreations on Sunday to such as had attended

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public worship; and he ordered his proclamation for that purpose to be publicly read by the clergy after divine service. Those, who were puritanically affected, refused obedience, and were punished by suspension or deprivation. The differences betwixt sects were before sufficiently great; nor was it necessary to widen them farther by these new inventions.

Some encouragement and protection, which the King and the bishops gave to wakes, church-ales, bride-ales, and other cheerful festivals of the common people, were the objects of like scandal to the puritans.

This year, Charles made a journey into Scotland, attended by his court, in order to hold a parliament there, and to pass thro' the ceremony of his coronation. The nobility and gentry of both kingdoms rivaled each other, in expressing all duty and respect to the King, and in marking mutual friendship and regard to each other. No one could have suspected, from exterior appearances, that such dreadful scenes were approaching.

One chief article of business (for it deserves the name) which the King transacted in this parliament, was, beside the obtaining some supply, to procure authority for ordering the habits of clergymen. The act passed not without opposition and difficulty. The dreadful surplice was before men's eyes; and they apprehended, with some reason, that, under sanction of this law, it would soon be introduced among them. Tho' the King believed, that his prerogative intitled him to a general power of directing whatever belonged to the external government of the church; this was esteemed a matter of too great importance to be ordered without the sanction of a particular statute.

Immediately after the King's return to England, he heard of Archbishop Abbot's death: And, without delay, he conferred that dignity on his favorite, Laud; who, by this accession of authority, was now enabled to maintain ecclesiastical discipline with greater rigor, and to aggravate the general discontent of the nation.

The bishopric of London, Laud obtained for his friend,

Juxon; and, about a year after Portland's death, had interest enough to have that prelate made Lord high treasurer. Juxon was a person of great integrity, mildness, and humanity, and endued with a good understanding: Yet did this last promotion give general discontent. His birth and character were too obscure for a man raised to one of the highest offices of the crown. And the clergy, it was thought, were already too much elated by former instances of the King's attachment to them, and needed not this farther encouragement to insult and tyrannize over the laity. The puritans, likeways, were much dissatisfied with Juxon, notwithstanding all his eminent virtues; because he was a lover of profane field-sports and hunting.

Ship-money was now introduced. The first writs of this kind had been only directed to seaport-towns: But ship-money was at this time levied from the whole kingdom; and each county was rated at a particular sum, which was afterwards assessed upon individuals. The amount of the whole tax was very moderate, little exceeding 200,000; it was distributed upon the people with justice and equality; and this money was intirely expended upon the navy, to the great honor and advantage of the kingdom: Yet all these circumstances could not reconcile the people to the imposition. It was intirely arbitrary: By the same right, any other tax might be imposed: And men esteemed a powerful fleet, tho' very desireable, but a poor recompence for all their liberties, which were thus sacrificed to the obtaining it.

England, it must be owned, was, in this respect, very unhappy in its situation, that the King had entertained a very different idea of the constitution, from that which began, in general, to prevail amongst his subjects. He did not regard the privileges of the people as so sacred and inviolable, that nothing but the most extreme necessity could justify an infringement of them. He considered himself as the supreme magistrate, to whose care heaven, by his birth-right, had committed his people, whose duty it was to provide for their security and happiness, and who was vested with very ample

discretionary powers for that salutary purpose. If the observance of the antient laws and customs was consistent with the present convenience of government, he esteemed himself obliged to comply with that rule; as the easiest, the safest, and what procured the most prompt and willing obedience. But when a change of circumstances, especially if derived from the obstinacy of the people, required a new plan of administration; all national privileges, he thought, must yield to supreme power; nor could any order of the state oppose any right to the will of the sovereign, directed to the good of the public. That these principles of government were derived from the uniform tenor of the English laws, it would be rash to affirm. The fluctuating nature of the constitution, the impatient humor of the people, and the variety of events, had, no doubt, in different ages, produced many exceptions and contradictions. These observations only may be established on both sides, *that* the appearances were sufficiently strong in favor of the King to apologize for his following such maxims, and *that* public liberty must be so precarious under this exorbitant prerogative as to render an opposition, not only excusable, but laudable, in the people.

Some laws had been enacted, during the reign of Henry VII against depopulation, or the converting arable lands into pasture. By a decree of the star-chamber, Sir Anthony Roper was fined 4,000 pound for an offence of this nature. This severe sentence was intended to terrify others into composition; and above 30,000 pound was levied by that expedient. Like compositions, or in default of them, heavy fines, were required for encroachments on the king's forrests; whose bounds, by decrees, esteemed arbitrary, were extended much beyond what was usual. The bounds of one forrest, that of Rockingham, were increased from six miles to sixty.<sup>5</sup> The same humor, which made the people refuse to the King voluntary supplies, disposed them, with much better reason, to murmur against these irregular methods of taxation.

5. Strafford's letters and dispatches, vol. ii. p. 117.

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Morley was fined 10,000 pound, for reviling, challenging, and striking, in the court of White-hall, Sir George Theobald, one of the King's servants. This fine was esteemed exorbitant; but whether it was compounded, as was usual in fines imposed by the star-chamber, we are not informed.

Allinson had reported, that the Archbishop of Yorke had incurred the King's displeasure, by asking a limited toleration to the catholics, and an allowance to build some churches for the exercise of their religion. For this slander against the Archbishop, he was condemned in the star-chamber to a fine of 1,000 pound, to be committed to prison, bound to his good behavior during life, to be whipped, to be set on the pillory at Westminster, and in three other towns of England. Robins, who had been an accomplice in the guilt, was condemned by a sentence equally severe. Such events are rather to be considered as rare and detached instances, collected by the severe scrutiny of historians, than as proofs of the prevailing genius of the King's administration.

Charles had imitated the example of Elizabeth and James, and had issued proclamations forbidding the landed gentlemen and the nobility to live idly in London, and ordering them to retire to their country-seats. For disobedience to this edict, many were indicted by the attorney-general, and were fined in the star-chamber. This occasioned discontents, and the sentences were complained of, as illegal. But if proclamations had authority, of which no body pretended to doubt; must they not be put in execution? In no instance, I must confess, does it more evidently appear, what confused and uncertain ideas were, during that age, entertained concerning the English constitution.

Ray, having transported fuller's earth, contrary to the King's proclamation, beside the pillory, was condemned in the star-chamber to a fine of 2000 pound. Like fines were levied on Terry, Eman, and others, for disobeying a proclamation, which forbade the exportation of gold. In order to account for the subsequent convulsions, even these inci-

dents are not to be overlooked, as frivolous or contemptible. Such severities as these were afterwards magnified into the greatest enormities.

There remains a proclamation of this year, forbidding hackney-coaches to stand in the street. We are told, that there were not above twenty coaches of that kind in London. There are, at present, above a thousand.

The effects of ship-money began now to appear. A formidable fleet of sixty sail, the greatest, which England had ever known, was equipped under the Earl of Northumberland, who had orders to attack the herring-bushes of the Dutch, which fished in what were called the British seas. The Dutch were contented to pay 30,000 pound for a licence during this year. They openly denied, however, this claim of dominion in the seas, beyond the firths, bays, and shores; and it must be owned, that the laws of nations do not warrant any farther pretension.

Burton a divine, and Bastwick a physician, were tried in the star-chamber for seditious and schismatical libels, and were condemned to the same punishment, which had been inflicted on Prynne. Prynne himself was tried for a new offence; and, along with another fine of 5000 pound, was condemned to lose what remained of his ears. Beside, that these writers had attacked, with great severity, and even an intemperate furious zeal, the ceremonies, rites, and government of the church; the very answers, which they gave in to the court, were so full of contumacy and of invectives against the prelates, that no lawyer could be prevailed with to sign them. The rigors however, which they underwent, being so unworthy men of their profession, gave general offence; and the patience, or rather alacrity, with which they suffered, increased still farther the indignation of the public. The severity of the star-chamber, which was generally ascribed to Laud's vindictive disposition, was, perhaps, in itself, somewhat blameable; but will naturally, to us, appear enormous, who enjoy, to the full, that liberty of the

press, which is so necessary in every monarchy, confined by legal limitations. But as these limitations were nor regularly fixed during the age of Charles, nor at any time before; so was the freedom of speech totally unknown, and was generally esteemed, as well as religious toleration, incompatible with all good government. No age nor nation, among the moderns, had ever set an example of such indulgences: And it seems unreasonable to judge of the measures, embraced during one period, by the maxims which prevail in another.

Burton in his book, complaining of innovations, mentioned among others, that a certain Wednesday had been appointed for a fast, and that the fast was ordered to be celebrated without any sermons. The intention, as he pretended, of that novelty was, by the example of a fast without sermons, to suppress all the Wednesday's lectures in London. 'Tis observable, that the church of Rome and that of England, being, both of them, lovers of form and ceremony and order, are more friends to prayer than preaching; while the puritanical sectaries, who find, that the latter method of address, being directed to a numerous audience present and visible, is more inflaming and animating, have always regarded it as the chief part of divine service. Such circumstances, tho' minute, it may not be improper to transmit to posterity; that those, who are curious of tracing the history of the human mind, may remark, how far its several extravagancies and singularities concur in different ages.

Certain zealots had erected themselves into a society for buying in of impropriations, and transferring them to the church; and great sums of money had been left to the society for these pious purposes. But it was soon observed, that the only use which they made of their funds, was to establish lecturers in all the considerable churches; men, who, without subjection to episcopal authority, employed themselves entirely in preaching and in spreading the fire of puritanism. Laud took care, by a decree, which was part in the court of exchequer, and which was much complained of, to abolish this society, and to stop their progress. It was,

however, still observed, that, thro-out England, the lecturers were, all of them, puritanically affected: and from them the clergymen, who contented themselves with reading prayers and homilies to the people, commonly received the reproachful appellation of *dumb dogs*.

The puritans, restrained in England, shipped themselves off for America, and laid there the foundations of a government, which possessed all the liberty, both civil and religious, of which they found themselves deprived in their native country. But their enemies, unwilling that they should any where enjoy ease and contentment, and dreading, perhaps, the dangerous consequences of so disaffected a colony, prevailed with the King to issue a proclamation, debarring these devotees access even into those inhospitable desarts. Eight ships, lying in the Thames, and ready to sail, were stayed by order of the council; and in these were embarked Sir Arthur Hazelrig, John Hambden, and Oliver Cromwel,<sup>6</sup> who had resolved for ever to abandon their native country, and fly to the other extremity of the globe; where they might enjoy lectures and discourses of any length or form which pleased them. The King had afterwards full leizure to repent this exercise of his authority.

The bishop of Norwich, by the rigorous insisting on uniformity, had banished many industrious tradesmen from that city, and chaced them into Holland. The Dutch began to be more intent on commerce than on orthodoxy; and thought that useful arts and obedience to the laws formed a good citizen; tho' attended with errors in subjects, where it is not allowable for human nature to expect any positive truth or certainty.

Complaints about this time were made, that the petition of right was, in some instances, violated, and that, upon a commitment by the King and council, bail or releasements had been refused to Jennings, Pargiter, and Danvers.

Williams, bishop of Lincoln, a man of great spirit and learning, and a very popular prelate, who had been Lord keeper, was fined 10,000 pound, committed to the tower dur-

6. Mather's History of New-England, book 1. Dugdale, Bates

ing the King's pleasure, and suspended from his office. This severe sentence was founded on very frivolous pretexts, and was more ascribed to Laud's vengeance, than to any guilt of the bishop. Laud, however, had owed his first promotion entirely to the good offices of that prelate with King James. But so implacable was the haughty primate, that he raised up a new prosecution against Williams, on the strangest pretext imaginable. In order to levy the fine, some officers had been sent to seize all the furniture and books of his episcopal palace of Lincoln; and in rummaging the house, they found in a corner some neglected letters, which had been thrown by, as useless. These letters were wrote by one Osbaldistone, a schoolmaster, and were directed to Williams. Mention was there made of a *little great man*: and in another passage, the same person was denominated a *little urchin*. By inferences and constructions, these epithets were applied to Laud; and on no better foundation was Williams tried anew, as having received scandalous letters, and not discovering that private correspondence. For this offence, another fine of 8000 pound was levied on him by a sentence of the star-chamber: Osbaldistone was likeways brought to trial, and condemned to a fine of 5000 pound, and to have his ears nailed to the pillory before his own school. He saved himself by flight; and left a note in his study, where he said, 'That he was gone beyond Canterbury.'

In a former trial, which Williams underwent, (for these were not the first) there was mentioned, in court, a story, which, as it marks the genius of parties, may be worth reciting. Sir John Lambe, urging him to prosecute the puritans, the prelate asked, what sort of people these same puritans were? Sir John replied, 'That to the world they seemed to be such as would not swear, whore, nor be drunk; but they would lye, cozen, and deceive: That they would frequently hear two sermons a-day, and repeat them too, and that sometimes they would fast all day-long.' This character must be conceived to be satirical; but yet, it may be allowed, that that sect was more averse to such irregularities as proceed from the excess of gaiety and pleasure, than to those

enormities, which are the most destructive of society. The former were opposite to the very genius and spirit of their religion; the latter were only a transgression of its precepts: And it was not difficult for a gloomy enthusiast to convince himself, that a strict observance of the one would attone for any violation of the other.

In 1632, Lord treasurer Portland had insisted with the vintners, that they should submit to a tax of a penny a-quart, upon all the wine which they retailed. But this they utterly refused. In order to punish them, a decree suddenly, without enquiry or examination, passed in the star-chamber, forbidding them to sell or dress victuals in their houses. Two years after, they were questioned for breach of this decree; and in order to avoid punishment, they agreed to lend the King six thousand pound. Being threatened, during the subsequent years, with fines and prosecutions, they at last compounded the matter, and submitted to pay half the duty, which was at first demanded of them. It required little foresight to perceive, that the King's right of issuing proclamations must, if prosecuted, draw on a power of taxation.

Lilburne was accused before the star-chamber, of publishing and dispersing seditious pamphlets. He was ordered to be examined; but refused to take the oath, usual in that court, that he would answer interrogatories, by which he might be led to accuse himself. For this contempt, as it was interpreted, he was condemned to be whipped, pilloried, and imprisoned. While he was whipped at the cart, and stood on the pillory, he harangued the populace, and declaimed violently against the tyranny of bishops. From his pockets too he scattered pamphlets, said to be seditious; because, I suppose, they attacked the hierarchy. The star-chamber, who were sitting at that very time, ordered him immediately to be gagged. He ceased not however, tho' both gagged and pilloried, to stamp with his foot and gesticulate, in order to show the people, that, if he had it in his power, he would still harangue them. He was brought to his trial anew, and condemned to be imprisoned in a dungeon, and to be loaded with irons. It was found very difficult

to break the spirits of men, who placed both their honor and their confidence in suffering.

The jealousy of the church appeared in another instance less tragical. Archy, the King's fool, who, by his office, had the privilege of jesting on his master, and the whole court, happened unluckily to try his wit upon Laud, who was too sacred a person to be played with. News having arrived from Scotland of the first commotions excited by liturgy, Archy, seeing the primate pass by, called to him, *Who's fool now, my Lord.* For this offence, Archy was ordered, by sentence of the council, to have his coat pulled over his head, and to be dismissed the King's service.

Here is another instance of that rigorous subjection, in which all men were held by Laud. Some young gentlemen of Lincolns inn, heated by their cups, having drank confusion to the Archbishop, at his instigation were cited before the star-chamber. They applied to the Earl of Dorset for protection. *Who bears witness against you?* said Dorset. *One of the drawers,* they replied. *Where did he stand, when you were supposed to drink this health?* subjoined the Earl. *He was at the door,* they replied, *going out of the room.* *Tush!* cried he; *the drawer was mistaken:* You drank to the confusion of the Archbishop of Canterbury's enemies; and the fellow was gone before you pronounced the last word. This hint supplied the young gentlemen with a new way of defence: And being advised by Dorset to behave with great humility and submission to the primate; the modesty of their carriage, the ingenuity of their apology, along with the patronage of that noble Lord, saved them from any severer punishment than a reproof and admonition, with which they were dismissed.

This year, John Hambden deservedly acquired, by his spirit and courage, universal popularity thro'out the nation, and has merited great renown with posterity for the bold stand, which he made, in defence of the laws and constitution of his country. After the laying on of ship-money, Charles, in order to discourage all opposition, had proposed the question to the judges; 'Whether, in a case of necessity,

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for the defence of the kingdom, he might not impose this taxation, and whether he was not sole judge of the necessity?' These guardians of law and liberty replied, with great complaisance, 'That in a case of necessity he might impose that taxation, and that he was sole judge of the necessity.' Mr Hambden had been rated at twenty shillings for an estate, which he held in the county of Buckingham: Yet notwithstanding this declared opinion of the judges, notwithstanding the great power, and sometimes rigorous maxims of the crown, notwithstanding the little prospect of relief from parliament; he resolved, rather than tamely submit to so illegal an imposition, to stand a legal prosecution, and expose himself to all the indignation of the court. The case was argued during twelve days, in the exchequer-chamber, before all the judges of England; and the nation regarded, with the utmost anxiety, every circumstance of this celebrated trial. The event was easily foreseen: But the principles and reasonings and behavior of all the parties, engaged in the trial, were much canvassed and enquired into; and nothing could equal the favor paid to the one side, except the hatred, which attended the other.

It was urged by Hambden's council, that the plea of necessity was in vain introduced into a trial of law; since it was the nature of necessity to abolish all law, and, by irresistible violence, to dissolve all the weaker and more artificial ties of human society. Not only the prince, in cases of extreme distress, is exempted from the ordinary rules of administration: All orders of men are then levelled; and any individual may consult the public safety by any expedient, which his situation enables him to employ. But to produce so violent an effect, and so hazardous to every community, an ordinary danger or difficulty is not sufficient; much less, a necessity, which is merely factitious and pretended. Where the peril is urgent and extreme, it will be palpable to every member of the society; and tho' all antient rules of government are in that case abrogated, men will readily, of themselves, submit to that irregular authority, which is exerted for their preservation. But what is there in common be-

twixt such suppositions, and the present condition of the nation? England enjoys a profound peace with all her neighbors: And what is more, all her neighbors are engaged in furious and bloody wars among themselves, and by their mutual enmities farther ensure her tranquillity. The very writs themselves, which are issued for the levying of ship-money, contradict the supposition of necessity, and pretend only, that the seas are infested with pyrates; a slight and temporary inconvenience, which may well wait a legal supply from parliament. The writs likeways allow several months for equipping the ships; which marks a very calm and deliberate species of necessity, and one that admits of delay much beyond the forty days requisite for summoning that assembly. 'Tis strange too, that an extreme necessity, which is always apparent, and usually comes to a sudden crisis, should now have continued, without interruption, for near four years, and should have remained, during so long a time, invisible to the whole kingdom. And as to the pretension, that the King is sole judge of the necessity; what is this, but to subject all the privileges of the nation to his arbitrary will and pleasure? To expect that the public will be convinced by such reasoning, must aggravate the general indignation; by adding, to violence against men's persons and their property, so cruel a mockery of their understanding.

In most national debates, tho' the reasons may not be equally ballanced, yet are there commonly some plausible topics, which may be pleaded even in favor of the weaker side; so complicated are all human affairs, and so uncertain the consequences of every public measure: But it must be confessed, that, in the present case, nothing of weight can be thrown into the opposite scale. The imposition of ship-money, is apparently the most avowed and most dangerous invasion of national privileges, not only which Charles was ever guilty of, but which the most arbitrary princes in England, since any liberty had been ascertained to the people, had ever ventured upon. In vain, were precedents of antient writs produced: These writs, when examined, were

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only found to require the seaports, sometimes at their own charge, sometimes at the charge of the counties, to send their ships for the defence of the nation. Even the prerogative, which empowered the crown to issue such writs, was abolished, and its exercise almost entirely discontinued, from the time of Edward III and all the authority, which remained or was afterwards exerted, was to press ships into the public service, to be payed for by the public. How wide were these precedents from a power of arbitrarily obliging the people, at their own charge, to build new ships, to victual and pay them, for the public; nay to furnish money to the crown for that purpose? What security either against the farther extension of this claim, or against employing to other purposes the public money, so levied? The plea of necessity would warrant any other taxation as well as that of ship-money; and it was difficult to conceive the kingdom in a situation, where that plea could be urged with less plausibility than at present. And if such maxims and such practices prevail; what has become of national liberty? What authority is left to the great charter, to the statutes, and to that very petition of right, which, in the present reign, had been so solemnly enacted, by the concurrence of the whole legislature?

Notwithstanding all these reasons, the prostituted judges, four excepted, gave sentence in favor of the crown. Hambden, however, obtained by the trial the end, for which he had so generously sacrificed his safety and his quiet: The people were rouzed from their lethargy, and saw plainly the chains, which were prepared for them. These national questions were canvassed in every company; and the more they were examined, the more evidently did it appear to many, that the constitution was totally subverted, and an unusual and arbitrary authority exercised over the kingdom. Slavish principles, they said, concurred with illegal practices; ecclesiastical tyranny gave aid to civil usurpation; iniquous taxations were supported by arbitrary punishments; and the whole rights of the nation, transmitted thro' so many ages, secured by so many laws, and purchased

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by the blood of so many heroes and patriots, now lay prostrate at the feet of the monarch. What tho' public peace and national industry encreased the commerce and opulence of the kingdom? This advantage was temporary, and due alone, not to any encouragement given by the crown, but to the spirit of the English, the remains of their antient freedom. What tho' the personal character of the King, amid all his misguided councils, might merit indulgence, or even praise? He was but one man; and the privileges of the nation, the inheritance of millions, were too valuable to be sacrificed to his prejudices and mistakes. Such, or more severe, were the sentiments promoted by a great party in the nation: And to redress these grievances, a parliament was impatiently longed for; or any other incident, however calamitous, which might secure the people against those oppressions, which they felt, or the greater ills, which they apprehended, from the combined encroachments of church and state.

## CHAP. IV

*Discontents in Scotland – Introduction of the canons and liturgy – A tumult at Edinburgh – The covenant – A general assembly – Episcopacy abolished – War – A pacification – Renewal of the war – Fourth English parliament – Dissolution – Discontents in England – Rout at Newburn – Treaty at Rippon – Great council of the peers*

THE grievances, under which the English labored, when considered in themselves, scarce deserve the name; nor were they either burthensome on the people's revenues, or any way shocking to the natural humanity of mankind. Even the taxation of ship-money, independent of the consequences, was rather an advantage to the public; by the judicious use, which the King made of the money, levied by that expedient. And tho' it was justly apprehended, that such precedents, if patiently submitted to, would end in a total disuse of parliaments, and in the establishment of arbitrary authority; Charles dreaded no opposition from the people, who are not commonly much affected with consequences, and require some striking motive, to engage them into resistance of established government. All ecclesiastical affairs were settled by law and uninterrupted precedent; and the church was become a considerable barrier to the power, both legal and illegal, of the crown. Peace too, industry, commerce, opulence, along with justice and lenity of administration: All these were fully enjoyed by the people; and every other blessing of government, except liberty, or rather the present exercise of liberty and its proper security. It seemed probable, therefore, that affairs might long have continued on the same footing in England; had it not been for the neighborhood of Scotland; a country more turbulent, and less disposed to submission and obedience. It was from thence the commotions first arose; and 'tis

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therefore time for us to return thither, and to give an account of the situation of that country.

Tho' the pacific, and not unskilful, government of James, and the great authority, which he had acquired, had much allayed the feuds among the great families, and had established law and order thro'out the whole kingdom; the nobility were still possessed of the chief power and influence over the people. Their property was very extensive; their hereditary jurisdictions and the feudal tenures increased their authority; and the attachment of the gentry to the heads of families established a kind of voluntary servitude under the cheiftains. Beside that long absence had much loosened the King's connexion with the nobility, who resided chiefly in the country; they were, in general, at this time, tho' from slight causes, very much disgusted with the court. Charles, from the natural piety or superstition of his temper, was extremely attached to the ecclesiastics: and as it is natural for men to persuade themselves, that their interest lies in conformity to their inclination; he had established it as a fixed maxim of policy, to increase the power and authority of that order. The prelates, he thought, established regularity and discipline among the clergy; the clergy inculcated obedience and loyalty among the people: And as that rank of men had no separate authority, and no dependance but on the crown; the royal power, it would seem, might, with the greatest safety, be entrusted in their hands. Many of the prelates, therefore, he raised to the chief dignities of the state: Spotswood, Archbishop of St Andrews, was created chancellor: Nine of the bishops were privy consellors: The bishop of Ross aspired to the office of treasurer: Some of the prelates possessed places in the exchequer: And it was even endeavored to revive the first institution of the college of justice, and to share equally bewixt the clergy and laity the whole judicative authority. These advantages, which were possessed by the church, and which the bishops did not always enjoy with suitable modesty, disgusted the haughty nobility, who, esteeming themselves so much superior in rank and quality to this new

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order of men, were displeased to find themselves inferior in power and influence. Interest joined itself to ambition; and begot a jealousy, lest the episcopal sees, which, at the reformation, had been pillaged by the nobles, should again be enriched at their expence. By a most useful and benevolent law, the impropriations had already been ravished from the great men: Power had been given to assign, to the impoverished clergy, competent livings from the tythes of each parish: And what remained, the proprietor of the land was empowered to purchase at a low valuation. The King too, warranted by antient law and practice, had declared for a general resumption of all crown-lands, alienated by his predecessors; and tho' he took no step towards the execution of this project, the very pretension to such power had excited jealousy and discontent.

Notwithstanding the tender affection, which Charles bore to the whole church, he had been able in Scotland, to acquire only the affection of the superior rank among the clergy. The ministers, in general, equalled, if not exceeded the nobility, in their prejudices against the court, against the prelates, and against episcopal authority. Tho' the establishment of the hierarchy might seem advantageous to the inferior clergy, both as it erected dignities, to which all of them might aspire, and as it bestowed a lustre on the whole body, and allured men of family into it; these views had no influence on the Scotch ecclesiastics. In the present disposition of men's minds, there was another circumstance, which drew consideration, and counterbalanced power and riches, the usual foundations of distinction among men; and that was, the fervor of piety, and the rhetoric, however barbarous, of religious lectures and discourses. Checked by the prelates in the licence of preaching, the clergy regarded episcopal jurisdiction both as a tyranny and an usurpation, and maintained a parity among pastors to be a divine privilege, which no human law could alter or infringe. While such ideas prevailed, the most moderate exercise of authority would have given disgust; much more, that unbounded power, which the King's indul-

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gence encouraged the prelates to assume. The jurisdiction of presbyteries, synods, and other democratical courts was, in a manner, abolished by the bishops; and the general assembly itself had not been summoned for several years. A new oath was arbitrarily exacted of intrants, in which they swore to observe the articles of Perth, and submit to the liturgy and canons. And in a word, the whole system of church government, during a course of thirty years, had been changed, by means of the innovations introduced by James and Charles.

The people, under the influence of the nobility and clergy, could not fail to partake of the discontents, which prevailed among these two orders; and where real grounds of complaint were wanting, they greedily laid hold of imaginary. The same horror against popery, with which the English puritans were possessed, was observable among the populace in Scotland; and among these, as being more uncultivated and uncivilized, seemed rather to be inflamed into a higher degree of ferocity. The genius of religion, which prevailed with the court and prelacy was of an opposite nature; and having some affinity with the Romish superstition, led them to mollify, as much as possible, these severe prejudices, and to speak of the catholics in more charitable language, and with more reconciling expressions. From this foundation, a panic fear of popery was easily raised; and every new ceremony or ornament, introduced into divine service, was part of that great mystery of iniquity, which, from the encouragement of the King and the bishops, was to overspread the nation. The few innovations, which James had made, were considered as preparatives to this grand design; and the farther alterations, attempted by Charles, were represented as a plain declaration of his intentions. And thro' the whole course of this reign, nothing had a more fatal influence, in both kingdoms, than this groundless apprehension, which, with so much industry, was propagated, and with so much credulity, was embraced, by all ranks of men.

Amidst these dangerous complaints and terrors of

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religious grievances, the civil and ecclesiastical privileges of the nation were imagined, and with some reason, not to be altogether free from invasion.

The establishment of the high-commission by James, without any authority of law, was an evident and a very considerable encroachment of the crown; and erected the most dangerous and arbitrary of all courts, in a manner equally dangerous and arbitrary. All the steps towards the settlement of episcopacy had indeed been taken with consent of parliament: The articles of Perth were confirmed in 1621: In 1633, the King had obtained a general ratification of every ecclesiastical establishment: But all these laws had less authority with the nation, than they were known to have passed contrary to the sentiments even of those who voted for them, and were in reality extorted by the authority and importunity of the sovereign. The means, however, which both James and Charles had employed, in order to influence the parliament, were intirely regular; and no reasonable pretext had been afforded for representing these laws as null or invalid.

But there prevailed among the greatest part of the nation another principle, of the most important and most dangerous consequence, and which, if admitted, destroyed intirely the validity of all such statutes. The ecclesiastical authority was supposed to be totally independent of the civil; and no act of parliament, nothing but the consent of the church itself, was represented as sufficient ground for the introduction of any change in religious worship or discipline. And tho' James had obtained the vote of assemblies for receiving episcopacy and his new rites; it must be confessed, that such irregularities had prevailed in constituting these ecclesiastical courts, and such violences in conducting them, that there were some grounds for denying the authority of all their acts. Charles, sensible, that an extorted consent, attended with such invidious circumstances, would rather be prejudicial to his measures, had intirely laid aside the use of assemblies, and was resolved, in conjunction with the bishops, to govern the church by an authority, which, in all,

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things, he was apt to extend beyond its proper bounds, and which, in ecclesiastical affairs, he believed absolutely uncontrollable.

The King's great aim was to compleat the work, so happily begun by his father; to establish discipline upon a regular system of canons, to introduce a liturgy into public worship, and to render the ecclesiastical government of all his kingdoms intirely regular and uniform. Some views of policy might move him to this undertaking: But his chief motives were derived from principles of piety and conscience.

The canons for establishing ecclesiastical jurisdiction were promulgated in 1635; and by the nation were received, tho' without much appearing opposition, yet with great inward discontent and apprehension. Men felt displeasure, at seeing the royal authority so highly exalted by them, and represented as absolute and uncontrollable. They saw these speculative principles of despotism reduced to practice, and a whole body of ecclesiastical laws established, without any previous consent either of church or state: They dreaded, that, by a parity of reason, like arbitrary authority, from like pretexts and principles, would be assumed in civil matters: They remarked, that the delicate boundaries, which separate church and state, were already passed, and many civil ordinances established by the canons, under pretext of ecclesiastical institutions: And they were apt to deride the negligence, with which these important edicts had been compiled; when they found, that the new liturgy or service-book was every where, under severe penalties, enjoined by them, tho' it had not yet been composed or published. It was, however, soon expected; and in the reception of it, as the people are always most affected by what is external and exposed to the senses, it was apprehended, that the chief difficulty would consist.

The liturgy, which the King, from his own arbitrary authority, imposed on Scotland, was copied from that of England: But lest a servile imitation might shock the pride of his antient kingdom, a very few alterations, in order to

save appearances, were made upon it; and in that shape it was transmitted to the bishops at Edinburgh. But the Scotch had universally entertained a notion, that, tho' riches and worldly glory had been shared out to them with a sparing hand, they could boast of spiritual treasures more abundant and more genuine, than were enjoyed by any nation under heaven. Even their southern neighbors, they thought, tho' separated from Rome, still retained a great tincture of the primitive pollution; and their liturgy was represented as a species of mass, tho' with some less show and embroidery. Great prejudices, therefore, were entertained against it, even considered in itself; much more, when regarded as a preparative, which was soon to introduce into Scotland all the abominations of popery. And as the very few alterations, which distinguished the new liturgy from the English, seemed to approach nearer the doctrine of the real presence; this circumstance was esteemed an undoubted confirmation of every suspicion, with which the people were possessed.

By proclamation, Easter-day was appointed for the first reading of the service in Edinburgh: But in order to judge more surely of men's dispositions, the council delayed the matter, till the 23d of July; and they even gave warning, the Sunday before, of their intention to commence the use of the new liturgy. As no considerable symptoms of discontent appeared, they thought, that they might safely proceed in their purpose; and accordingly, in the cathedral church of St Gyles, the dean of Edinburgh, arrayed in his surplice, began the service; the bishop himself and many of the privy council being present. But no sooner had the dean opened the book, than a multitude of the meanest sort, most of them women, clapping their hands, cursing, and crying out, *A pope! a pope! antichrist! stone him!* raised such a tumult, that it was impossible to proceed with the service. The bishop, mounting the pulpit, in order to appease the populace, had a stool thrown at him: The council were insulted: And it was with difficulty, that the magistrates, partly by authority, partly by force, were able to expel the

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rabble, and to shut the doors against them. The tumult, however, still continued without: Stones were thrown at the doors and windows: And when the service was ended, the bishop, going home, was attacked, and narrowly escaped from the hands of the enraged multitude. In the afternoon, the Lord privy seal, because he carried the bishop in his coach, was so pelted with stones, and hooted at with execrations, and pressed upon by the eager populace, that, if his servants, with swords drawn, had not kept them off, the bishop had run the utmost hazard of his life.

Tho' it was violently suspected, that the low rabble, who alone appeared, had been instigated by some of higher condition, yet no proofs of it could ever be produced; and every one spoke with disapprobation of the licentiousness of the giddy multitude. It was not thought safe, however, to hazard a new insult by any new attempt to read the liturgy; and the populace seemed, for the time, to be appeased and satisfied. But it being known, that the King still persevered in his intentions of imposing that mode of worship, men fortified themselves still farther in their prejudices against it; and great multitudes resorted to Edinburgh, in order to oppose the introduction of so hated a novelty. It was not long before they broke out into the most violent disorder. The bishop of Galloway was attacked in the streets, and chaced into the chamber, where the privy council was sitting. The council themselves were besieged and violently attacked: The town-council met with the same fate: And nothing could have saved the lives of all of them, but their application to some popular lords, who protected them, and dispersed the multitude. In this sedition, the actors were of some better condition than in the former; tho' no body of rank seemed, as yet, to contenance them.

All men, however, began to unite and to encourage each other, in opposition to the religious innovations, introduced into the kingdom. Petitions to the council were signed and presented by persons of the highest quality: The women took part, and, as is usual, with great violence: The clergy, every where, loudly declaimed against popery and the

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liturgy, which they represented as the same: The pulpits rang with vehement invectives against antichrist: And the populace, who first opposed the service, was often compared to Balaam's ass; an animal, in itself, stupid and senseless, but whose mouth had been opened by the Lord, to the admiration of the whole world. In short, religion mingling with faction, private interest with the spirit of liberty, symptoms appeared, on all hands, of the most dangerous insurrection and disorder.

The primate, a man of wisdom and moderation, who was all along averse to the introduction of the liturgy, represented to the King the state of the nation: The Earl of Traquaire, Lord treasurer, went to London, in order to lay the matter more fully before him: Every circumstance, whether the condition of England or of Scotland was considered, should have engaged him to desist from so hazardous an attempt: Yet was Charles inflexible. In his whole conduct of this affair, there appear no marks of the good sense, with which he was undoubtedly endowed: A lively instance of that species of character, so frequently to be met with; where there are found parts and judgment in every discourse and opinion; in many actions, indiscretion and imprudence. Men's views of things are the result of their understanding alone: Their conduct is regulated by their understanding, their temper, and their passions.

To so violent a combination of a whole kingdom, Charles had nothing to oppose but a proclamation; where he pardoned all past offences, and exhorted the people to be more obedient for the future, and to submit peaceably to the liturgy. This proclamation was in the instant encountered publicly with a protestation, presented by the Earl of Hume and Lord Lindsey: And this was the first time, that men of quality had appeared in any violent act of opposition. But this proved a crisis. The insurrection, which had been advancing by a gradual and slow progress, now blazed out at once. No disorder, however, attended it. On the contrary, a new order immediately took place. Four tables, as they

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were called, were formed in Edinburgh. One consisted of nobility, another of gentry, a third of ministers, a fourth of burgesses. The table of gentry was divided into many subordinate tables, according to their different counties. In the hands of the four tables, the whole authority of the kingdom was placed. Orders were issued by them, and every where obeyed, with the utmost regularity. And among the first acts of their government was the production of the **Covenant.**

This famous covenant consisted first of a renunciation of popery, formerly signed by James in his youth, and composed of the most furious and most virulent invectives, with which any human beings had ever inflamed their breast to an unrelenting animosity against their fellow creatures. There followed a bond of union, by which the subscribers obliged themselves to resist religious innovations, and to defend each other against all opposition whatever: And all this, for the greater glory of God, and the greater honor and advantage of their king and country. All ranks and conditions, all ages and sexes, flocked to the subscription of this covenant: Few, in their judgment, disapproved of it; and still fewer dared openly to condemn it. The King's ministers and counsellors themselves were, most of them, seized by the general contagion. And none but rebels to God, and traitors to their country, it was thought, would withdraw themselves from so salutary and so pious a combination.

The treacherous, the cruel, the unrelenting Philip, accompanied with all the terrors of a Spanish inquisition, was scarcely, during the preceding century, opposed in the low countries with more determined fury, than was now, by the Scotch, the mild, the humane Charles, attended with his inoffensive liturgy.

The King began to apprehend the consequences. He sent the Marquis of Hamilton, as commissioner, with authority to treat with the covenanters. He required the covenant to be renounced and recalled: And he thought, that on his part he had made very satisfactory concessions, when he

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offered to suspend the canons and the liturgy, till, in a fair and legal way, they could be received; and so to model the high commission, that it should no longer give offence to his subjects. Such general declarations could not well give content to any, much less to those who carried so much higher their pretensions. The covenanters found themselves seconded by the zeal of the whole nation. Above sixty thousand people were assembled in a tumultuous manner about Edinburgh. Charles possessed no regular forces in either of his kingdoms. And the discontents in England, tho' secret, were believed so violent, that the King, it was thought, would find it very difficult to employ in such a cause the power of that nation. The more, therefore, the popular leaders in Scotland considered their situation, the less apprehensions did they entertain of royal power, and the more rigorously did they insist on intire satisfaction. In answer to Hamilton's demand of renouncing the covenant, they plainly told him, that they would sooner renounce their baptism: And the ministers invited the commissioner himself to subscribe it; by informing him. 'With what peace and comfort it had filled the hearts; of all God's people; what resolutions and beginnings of reformation of manners were sensibly perceived in all parts of the nation, above any measure they had ever before found or could have expected; how great glory the Lord had received thereby; and what confidence they had, that God would make Scotland a blessed kingdom'.

Hamilton returned to London: Made another fruitless journey, with new concessions, to Edinburgh: Returned again to London; and was immediately sent back with still more satisfactory concessions. The King was now willing intirely to abolish the canons, the liturgy, and the high commission-court: He was even resolved to limit extremely the power of the bishops, and was content, if, on any terms, he could retain that order in the church of Scotland. And to ensure all these gracious offers, he gave Hamilton authority to summon first an assembly, then a parliament, where every national grievance might be redressed and

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remedied. These successive concessions of the King, which yet came still short of the rising demands of the malecontents discovered his own weakness, encouraged their insolence, and gave no satisfaction. The offer, however, of an assembly and a parliament, in which they expected to be intirely masters, was very willingly embraced by all the covenanters.

Charles, perceiving what advantage his enemies had reaped from their covenant, resolved to have a covenant on his side; and he ordered one to be drawn up for that purpose. It consisted of the same violent renunciation of popery above-mentioned; which, tho' the King did not approve it, he thought it safest to adopt, in order to remove all the suspicions, entertained against him. As the covenanters, in their bond of mutual defence against all opposition, had been careful not to except the King; Charles had formed a bond, which was annexed to this renunciation, and which expressed the subscribers' duty and loyalty to his Majesty. But the covenanters, perceiving, that this new covenant was only meant to weaken and divide them, received it with the utmost scorn and detestation. And without delay, they proceeded to the modelling the future assembly, from which such great achievements were expected.

The genius of that religion, which prevailed in Scotland, and which, every day, was secretly gaining ground in England, was far from inculcating deference and submission to the ecclesiastics, merely as such: Or rather, by nourishing in every individual, the wildest raptures and extasies of devotion, it consecrated, in a manner, every individual, and, in his own eyes, bestowed a character on him, much superior to what forms and ceremonious institutions, could alone confer. The clergy of Scotland, tho' such tumult was excited about religious worship and discipline, were both poor, and in small numbers; nor are they, in general, to be considered, at least in the beginning, as the ring-leaders of the sedition, which was raised on their account. On the contrary, the laity, apprehending, from several instances, which occurred, a spirit of moderation in

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that order, resolved to domineer intirely in the same furious zeal, with which they were themselves transported.

It had been usual, before the establishment of prelacy, for each presbytery to send to the assembly, beside two or three ministers, one lay-commissioner; and, as all the burroughs and universities sent likeways commissioners, the lay-members, in that ecclesiastical court, very nearly equalled the ecclesiastics. Not only this institution, which James, apprehensive of lay-zeal, had abolished, was now revived by the covenanters: They also introduced an innovation, which served still farther to reduce the clergy to subjection. By an edict of the tables, whose authority was supreme, a lay-elder, from each parish, was ordered to attend the presbytery, and to give his vote in the choice both of the commissioners and ministers, who should be deputed to the assembly. As it is not usual for the ministers, who are put in the list of candidates, to claim a vote, the whole elections, by that means, fell into the hands of the laity: The most furious of all ranks were chosen: And the more to overawe the clergy, a new device was fallen upon, of chusing, to every commissioner, four or five lay-assessors, who, tho' they could have no vote, yet might interpose with their counsel and authority in the assembly.

The assembly met at Glasgow: And, beside an infinite concourse of people, all the nobility and gentry of any family or interest, were present, either as members, assessors, or spectators; and it was apparent, that the resolutions taken by the covenanters, could here meet with no manner of opposition. A firm determination had been entered into, of utterly abolishing episcopacy; and as a preparative to it, there was laid before the presbytery of Edinburgh, and solemnly red in all the churches of the kingdom, an accusation against the bishops, as guilty, all of them, of heresy, simony, bribery, perjury, cheating, incest, adultery, fornication, common swearing, drunkenness, gaming, breach of the sabbath, and every other crime, which had occurred to the accusers. The bishops sent a protest declining the authority of the assembly; the commissioner too protested

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against that court, as illegally constituted and elected; and in his Majesty's name, dissolved it. This measure was foreseen, and little regarded. The court still continued to sit, and to finish their business. The whole acts of assembly, since the accession of James to the crown of England, were, upon pretty reasonable grounds, declared null and invalid. The acts of parliament, which affected ecclesiastical affairs, were supposed on that very account, to have no manner of authority. And thus episcopacy, the high-commission, the articles of Perth, the canons, and the liturgy, were abolished and declared unlawful: And the whole fabric, which James and Charles, in a long course of years, had been rearing with such care and policy, fell at once to the ground. The covenant too was ordered to be signed by every one, under pain of excommunication.

The independance of the ecclesiastical upon the civil power was the old presbyterian principle, which had been zealously adopted at the reformation, and which, tho' James and Charles had obliged the church publicly to disclaim it, had secretly been adhered to by all ranks of people. It was commonly asked, whether Christ or the King was superior: And as the answer seemed obvious, it was inferred, that the assembly, being Christ's council, were superior, in all spiritual matters, to the parliament, who were only the King's. But as the covenanters were sensible, that this consequence, tho' it seemed to them irrefragable, would not be assented to by the King; it became requisite to maintain their religious tenets by military force, and not to trust intirely to supernatural assistance, of which, however, they held themselves well assured. They cast their eyes on all sides, abroad and at home, whence-ever they could expect any aid or support.

After France and Holland had entered into a league against Spain, and framed a treaty of partition, by which they were to conquer and to divide betwixt them the low-country-provinces, England was invited, to preserve a neutrality betwixt the contending parties, while the French and Dutch should attack the maritime towns of Flanders.

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But the King replied to d'Estrades, the French ambassador, who opened the proposal, that, he had a squadron ready, and would cross the seas, if necessary, with an army of 15,000 men, in order to prevent these projected conquests. This answer, which proves, that Charles, tho' he expressed his mind with an imprudent candor, had, at last, acquired a just idea of national interest, irritated extremely Cardinal Richelieu; and in revenge, that politic and enterprizing minister carefully fomented the first commotions in Scotland, and secretly supplied the covenanters with money and arms, in order to fortify them in their opposition against their sovereign.

But the chief resource of the Scotch malecontents, was in themselves, and in their own vigor and ability. No regular established commonwealth could take juster measures, or execute them with greater promptitude, than did this tumultuous combination, inflamed with bigotry for religious trifles, and faction without a resonable object. The whole kingdom was, in a manner, engaged; and the men of greatest ability, soon acquired the ascendant, which their family-interest enabled them to maintain. The Earl of Argyle, tho' he long seemed to temporize, had, at last, embraced the covenant; and he became the chief leader of that party: A man equally supple and inflexible, cautious and determined, and entirely qualified to make a figure during a factious and turbulent period. The Earls of Rothes, Cassils, Montrose, Lothian, the Lords Lindesey, Loudon, Yester, Balmerino, distinguished themselves in that party. Many Scotch officers had acquired reputation in the German wars, particularly under Gustavus; and these were invited over to assist their country in her present necessity. The command was entrusted to Lesly, a soldier of experience and ability. Forces were regularly inlisted and disciplined. Arms were commissioned and imported from foreign countries. A few castles, which belonged to the King, being unprovided of victuals, ammunition, and garrisons, were soon seized on. And the whole country, except a small part, where the Marquess of Huntley still adhered to the King, being in the

covenanters' hands, was, in a very little time, put into a tolerable posture of defence.

The fortifications of Leith were begun and carried on with great rapidity. Beside the inferior sort, and those who labored for pay, incredible numbers of volunteers, even noblemen and gentlemen, put their hand to the work, and esteemed the most abject occupation to be dignified by the sanctity of the cause. Women too, of rank and condition, forgetting the delicacy of their sex, and the decorum of their character, were intermingled with the lowest rabble; and carried, on their shoulders, the rubbish, requisite for compleating the fortifications.<sup>1</sup>

We must not omit another auxiliary of the covenanters, and no inconsiderable one; a prophetess, who was much followed and admired by all ranks of people. Her name was Michelson, a woman full of whimsies, partly hysterical, partly religious; and inflamed with a zealous concern for the ecclesiastical discipline of the presbyterians. She spoke but at certain times, and had often interruptions of days and weeks: But when she began to renew her ecstasies, warning of the happy event was conveyed over the whole country, thousands crowded about her house, and every word, which she uttered, was received with veneration, as the most sacred oracles. The covenant was her perpetual theme. The true, genuine covenant, she said, was ratified in heaven: The King's covenant was an invention of Satan: When she spoke of Christ, she commonly called him by the name of the covenanting Jesus. Rollo, a popular preacher, and zealous covenanter, was her great favorite; and payed her, on his part, no less veneration. Being desired by the spectators to pray with her, and speak to her, he answered: 'That he durst not, and that it would be ill manners in him to speak, while his master Christ was speaking in her.'<sup>2</sup>

Charles had agreed to reduce episcopal authority so much, that it would no longer have been of any service to support the crown; and this sacrifice of his own interest he was

1. Guthry's Memoirs.

2. King's declaration at large; Burnet's Memoirs of Hamilton.

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willing to make, in order to obtain public peace and tranquillity. But he could not consent entirely to abolish an order, which he esteemed as essential to the being of a christian church, as his Scotch subjects thought it incompatible with that sacred institution. This narrowness of mind, if we would be impartial, we must either blame or excuse equally on both sides; and thereby anticipate, by a little reflection, that judgment, which time, by introducing new superstitions, will undoubtedly render quite familiar to posterity.

So great was Charles's aversion to violent and sanguinary measures, and so strong his affection to his native kingdom, that, it is probable, the contest in his breast would be nearly equal betwixt these laudable passions, and his attachment to the hierarchy. The latter affection, however, prevailed for the time, and made him hasten those military preparations, which he had projected for subduing the refractory spirits of the Scotch nation. By regular oeconomy, he had not only payed all the debts contracted during the Spanish and French wars; but had amassed a sum of 200,000 pound, which he reserved for any sudden exigency. The Queen had great interest with the catholics, both from the sympathy of religion, and from the favors and indulgences, which she had been able to procure them. She now employed her credit, and persuaded them, that it was reasonable to give large contributions, as a mark of their duty to the King, during this urgent necessity. A considerable supply was gained by this means, to the great scandal of the puritans, who were mightily offended at seeing the King on such good terms with the papists, and repined, that others should give what they themselves were disposed to refuse him.

Charles's fleet was formidable and well supplied. Having put 5000 land-forces on board, he entrusted it to the Marquis of Hamilton, who had orders to sail to the firth of Forth, and to cause a diversion in the forces of the malecontents. An army was levied of near 20,000 foot, and above 3000 horse, and was put under the command of the Earl of Arundel, a Nobleman of great family, but celebrated

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neither for military nor political abilities. The Earl of Essex, a man of strict honor, and extremely popular, especially among the soldiery, was appointed lieutenant-general: The Earl of Holland was general of the horse. The King himself joined the army, and had summoned all the peers of England to attend him. The whole had the appearance of a splendid court, rather than of a military armament; and in this situation, carrying more show than real force with it, the camp arrived at Berwick.

The Scotch army was as numerous as that of the King, but inferior in cavalry: The officers had more reputation and experience; and the soldiers, tho' undisciplined and ill armed, were animated, as well by the national aversion to England and the dread of becoming a province to their old enemy, as by an unsurmountable fervor of religion. The pulpits had extremely assisted the officers in levying recruits, and had thundered out anathemas upon all those *who went not out to assist the Lord against the mighty*. Yet so prudent were the leaders of the malecontents, that they immediately sent very submissive messages to the King, and craved leave to be admitted to a treaty.

Charles knew, that the force of the covenanters was considerable, their spirits high, their zeal furious; and as they were not yet daunted by any ill success, no reasonable terms could be expected from them. With regard therefore to a treaty, great difficulties occurred on both sides. Should he submit to the pretensions of the malecontents; beside that the prelacy must be sacrificed to their religious prejudices; such a check would be given to regal authority, which had, very lately, and with much difficulty, been thorowly established in Scotland, that he must expect, for ever after, to retain, in that kingdom, no more than the appearance of majesty. The great men, having proved, by so sensible a trial, the impotence of law and prerogative, would return to their former licentiousness: The preachers would retain their innate arrogance; and the people, unprotected by justice, would recognize no other authority, than that which they found to domineer over them. England too, it was

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much to be feared, would imitate so bad an example; and having already a strong propensity towards republican and puritanical factions, would expect, by the same seditious practices, to attain the same indulgence. To advance so far, without bringing the rebels to a total submission, at least to reasonable concessions, was to promise them, in all future time, an impunity for rebellion.

On the other hand, Charles considered, that Scotland was never before, under any of his ancestors, so united, and so animated in its own defence; and yet had often been able to foil or elude the force of England, combined heartily in one cause, and enured by long practice to the use of arms. How much greater difficulty would he find, at present, to subdue by violence a people, inflamed by religious prejudices; while he could only oppose to them a nation, enervated by long peace, and lukewarm in his service; or what was more to be feared, many of them engaged in the same party with the enemy. Should the war be only protracted beyond a summer; and who could expect to finish it in that period: his treasure would fail him, and, for supply, he must have recourse to an English parliament, who, by fatal experience, he had ever found more ready to encroach on the prerogatives, than to aid the necessities, of the crown. And what if he receive a defeat from the rebel army? This misfortune was far from impossible. They were engaged in a national cause, and strongly actuated by mistaken principles. His army was retained entirely by pay, and looked on the quarrel with the same indifference, which naturally belongs to mercenary troops, without possessing the discipline, by which such troops are commonly distinguished. And the consequence of a battle lost, while Scotland was enraged and England discontented, was so dreadful, that no motive should persuade him to venture it.

It is evident, that Charles, by his precipitation and oversights, had brought himself to such a situation, that, whichever side he embraced, his errors must be dangerous: No wonder, therefore, he was in great perplexity. But he did infinitely worse, than embrace the worst party: For,

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properly speaking, he embraced no party at all. He concluded a sudden pacification, where it was stipulated, That he should withdraw his fleet and army; that, within eight and forty hours, the Scotch should dismiss their forces; that the King's forts should be restored to him; his authority acknowledged; and a general assembly and a parliament be immediately summoned, in order to compose all differences. What were the *reasons*, which engaged the King to admit such strange articles of peace, it is in vain to enquire: For there could be none. The *causes* of that event may admit of a more easy explication.

The malecontents had been very industrious, in representing to the English, the grievances, under which Scotland labored, and the ill councils, which had been suggested to their sovereign. Their liberties, they said, were invaded: The prerogatives of the crown extended beyond all former precedents: Illegal courts erected: The hierarchy exalted at the expence of national privileges: And so many new superstitions introduced by the naughty tyrannical prelates, as begot a just suspicion, that a project was seriously formed for the restoration of popery. The King's conduct, surely, in Scotland, had been, in every thing, except in establishing the ecclesiastical canons, much more legal and justifiable, than in England; that the English readily assented to all the representations of the Scotch malecontents, and believed that nation to have been driven, by oppression, into the violent councils, which they had embraced. So far, therefore, from being willing to second the King in subduing the free spirits of the Scotch; they rather pitied that unhappy people, who had been reduced to those extremities: And they thought, that the example of such neighbors, as well as their assistance, might, some time, be advantageous to England, and encourage her to recover, by a vigorous effort, her violated laws and liberties. The gentry and nobility, who, without attachment to the court, without command in the army, attended in great numbers the English camp, greedily seized, and propagated, and gave authority to these sentiments: A retreat, very little honor-

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able, which the Earl of Holland, with a considerable detachment of the English forces, had made before a detachment of the Scotch, caused all these humors to blaze up at once: And the King, whose character was not sufficiently vigorous nor decisive, and who was apt, from facility, to embrace hasty councils, suddenly assented to a measure, which was recommended by all about him, and which favored his natural propensity to lenity and moderation towards the misguided subjects of his native kingdom.

Charles, having so far advanced in pacific measures, ought, with a steady resolution, to have prosecuted them, and have submitted to every tolerable condition, demanded by the assembly and parliament; nor should he have recommenced hostilities, but on account of such enormous and unexpected pretensions, as would have justified his cause, if possible, to the whole English nation. So far, indeed, he adopted this plan, that he agreed, not only to confirm his former concessions, of rescinding the canons, the liturgy, the high commission, and the articles of Perth; but also to abolish the order itself of bishops, for which he had so zealously contended. But this concession was gained by the utmost violence, which he could impose on his disposition and prejudices: He even secretly retained an intention of seizing favorable opportunities, in order to recover the ground, which he had lost: And one step farther he could not prevail with himself to advance. The assembly, when it met, payed not due deference to the King's prepossessions, but gave full indulgence to their own. They voted episcopacy to be unlawful in the church of Scotland: He was willing to allow it contrary to the constitutions of that church. They stigmatised the liturgy and canons, as popish: He agreed simply to abolish them. They denominated the high commission, tyranny: He was content to set it aside. The parliament, who sat after the assembly, advanced pretensions, which tended to diminish the civil power of the monarch; and what probably affected Charles much more, they were proceeding to ratify the acts of assembly, when, by the King's instructions, Traquaire, the commissioner,

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prorogued them. And on account of these claims, which might easily have been foreseen, was the war renewed; with great advantages on the side of the covenanters, and disadvantages on that of the King.

No sooner had Charles concluded the pacification without conditions, than the necessity of his want of money, obliged him to disband his army; and, as they had been held together by none but mercenary views, it was not possible, without great trouble, and expence, and loss of time, again to assemble them. The more prudent covenanters had concluded, that their pretensions being so contrary to the interest, and still more to the inclinations, of the King, it was likely, that they would again be obliged to support their cause by arms; and they were therefore careful, in dismissing their troops, to preserve nothing but the appearance of a pacific disposition. The officers had orders to be ready on the first summons: The soldiers were warned not to esteem the nation secure from an English invasion: And the religious zeal, which animated all ranks of men, made them immediately fly to their standards, as soon as the trumpet was sounded by their spiritual and temporal leaders. The credit, which, in their last expedition, they had acquired, by obliging their sovereign to depart from all his pretensions, gave courage to every one, in undertaking this new enterprize.

The King with great difficulty, made shift to draw together an army: But soon found, that, all savings being gone, and great debts contracted, his revenues would be insufficient to support them. An English parliament, therefore, formerly so unkind and intractable, must now, after above eleven years intermission, after trying many irregular methods of taxation, after multiplied disgusts given to the puritanical party, be summoned to assemble, amidst the most pressing necessities of the crown.

The Earl of Traquaire, had intercepted a letter, wrote to the King of France by the Scotch malecontents; and had conveyed this letter to the King. Charles, partly repenting

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of the large concessions which he had made to the Scotch, partly disgusted at their fresh insolences and pretensions, seized this opportunity of breaking with them. He had thrown into the tower, the Lord Loudon, commissioner from the covenanters; one of the persons who had signed the treasonable letter: And he now laid the matter before the parliament, whom he hoped to inflame by the resentment, and alarm by the danger, of this application to a foreign power. By the mouth of the Lord keeper, Finch, he opened up his wants, and informed them, that he had been able to assemble his army, and to subsist them, not by any revenue which he possessed, but by means of a large debt of above 300,000 pound, which he had contracted, and for which he had given security upon the crown-lands. He represented, That it was necessary to grant supplies for the immediate and urgent demands of his military armaments; that the season was far advanced, the time precious, and none of it must be lost in deliberation; that tho' his coffers were empty, they had not been exhausted by unnecessary pomp, or sumptuous buildings, or any other kind of magnificence; that whatever supplies had been levied from his subjects, had been employed for their advantage and preservation, and like vapors arising out of the earth, and gathered into a cloud, had fallen in sweet and refreshing showers on the same fields from which they had, at first, been exhaled; that tho' he desired such immediate assistance as might prevent, for the time, a total disorder in the government, he was far from any intention of precluding them of their right to inquire into the state of the kingdom, and to offer him petitions for the redress of their grievances; that as much as was possible of this season should be afterwards allowed them for that purpose; that as he expected only such supply at present as the current service necessarily required, it would be requisite to assemble them again next winter, when they would have full leisure to conclude whatever business had, this season, been left imperfect and unfinished; that the parliament of Ireland had twice put such trust in his good intentions as

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to grant him, in the beginning of the session, a very large supply, and had ever experienced good effects of the confidence reposed in him; and that, in every circumstance, his people should find his conduct suitable to a just, pious, and gracious king, and such as was calculated to promote an intire harmony betwixt prince and parliament.

However plausible these topics, they made little impression on the house of commons. By several illegal, and still more suspicious and imprudent measures of the crown, and by the courageous opposition, which particular persons, amidst dangers and hardships, had made to them, the minds of men, thro'out the nation, had taken such a turn as to ascribe every honor to the refractory opposers of the King and the ministers. These were the only patriots, the only lovers of their country, the only heroes, and, perhaps too, the only true christians. A reasonable compliance with the court, was slavish dependance; a regard to the King, servile flattery; a confidence in his promises, shameful prostitution. This general cast of thought, which has, more or less, prevailed in England, during a century and a half, and which has been the cause of much good and much ill in public affairs, never predominated more than during the reign of Charles. The present house of commons, being composed intirely of country gentlemen, who came into parliament with all their native prejudices about them, was sure to contain a majority of these stubborn patriots.

Affairs too, by means of the Scots insurrection, and the general discontents in England, were drawing so near a crisis, that the leaders of the house, sagacious and penetrating, began to foresee the consequences, and to hope, that the time, so long wished for, was now come, when royal authority must fall into a total subordination to popular assemblies, and when public liberty must acquire a full ascendant. By reducing the crown to necessities, they had hitherto found, that the King had been pushed into violent councils, which had served extremely the purposes of his adversaries: And by multiplying these necessities, it was foreseen, that his prerogative, undermined on all sides,

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must, at last, succumb, and be no longer dangerous to the privileges of the people. Whatever, therefore, tended to compose the differences betwixt King and parliament, and to preserve the government uniformly in its present channel, was zealously opposed by these popular leaders; and their past conduct and sufferings gave them credit sufficient to effect all their purposes.

'Tis the situation which decides intirely of the fortunes and characters of men. The King, it must be owned, tho' laudible in many respects, was not endowed with that masterly genius, which might enable him to perceive, in their infancy, the changes that arose in natural manners, and know how to accommodate his conduct to them. He had not perceived, that his best policy was not, by opposition, much less by invasions and encroachments, to enrage the republican spirit of the people; but that he ought, by gently departing from some branches of his hereditary authority, to endeavor, as far as possible, to preserve the rest from the inroads of his jealous subjects. Still tenacious of his prerogative, he found, that he could not preserve the old claims of the crown without assuming new ones: A principle similar to that which many of his subjects seem to have formed with regard to the liberties of the people.

The house of commons, therefore, moved by these and many other obvious reasons, instead of taking notice of the King's complaints against his Scotch subjects, or his application for supply, entered immediately upon grievances; and a speech, which Pym made them on that subject, was much more hearkened to, than that which the Lord keeper had delivered them in the name of their sovereign. The subject matter of it has been sufficiently explained above; where we gave an account of all the grievances, real in the state, and imaginary in the church, of which the nation, at that time, so loudly complained. The house began with declaring, a breach of privilege, the behavior of the speaker the last day of the former parliament; when he refused, on account of the King's command, to put the question. They proceeded next to examine into the imprisonment

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and prosecution of Sir John Elliot, Hollis, and Valentine: The affair of ship-money was canvassed: And plentiful subject of inquiry was suggested on all hands. Grievances were regularly classed under three heads; those with regard to the privileges of parliament, the property of the subject, and religion. The King, seeing a large and inexhaustible field opened, pressed them again for supply; and finding his message ineffectual, he came to the house of peers, and desired their good offices with the commons. The peers were very sensible of the King's urgent necessities; and thought, that supplies, on this occasion, ought, both in reason and in decency, to go before grievances. They ventured to represent their sense of the matter to the commons; but their intercession did harm. The commons had always claimed, as their peculiar province, the furnishing money; and, tho' the peers had gone no farther than offering advice, they immediately thought proper to vote so unusual and unprecedented an interposal to be a breach of privilege. Charles, in order to bring the matter of supply to some issue, sollicited the house with new messages: And finding, that the business of ship-money gave great alarm and disgust; beside informing them, that he never intended to make a constant revenue of it, that all the money levied had been regularly, along with other great sums, expended on equipping the navy; he now went so far as to offer the abolishing intirely that imposition, by any law which the commons should think proper to present to him. In return, he asked only for his urgent necessities, a supply of twelve subsidies, about 600,000 pounds, and that payable in three years; but, at the same time, he let them know, that, considering the situation of his affairs, a delay were equivalent to a denial. The King, tho' the majority was against him, never had more friends in any house of commons; and the debate was carried on for two days, with great zeal and warmth on both sides.

It was urged by the partizans of the court, That the happiest occasion, which the fondest wishes could suggest, was now presented, of composing all disgusts and jealousies

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betwixt King and people, and of reconciling their sovereign, for ever, to the use of parliaments. That if they, on their part, laid aside all enormous claims and pretensions, and provided, in a reasonable manner, for the public necessities; they needed entertain no suspicion of any insatiable ambition or illegal usurpation in the crown. That tho' due regard had not always been paid, during this reign, to the sacred rights of the people, yet no invasion of them had been altogether deliberate and voluntary; much less, the result of wanton tyranny and injustice; and still less, of a formed design to subvert the constitution. That to repose a reasonable confidence in the King, and generously supply his present wants, which proceeded neither from prodigality nor misconduct, would be the true way to gain on his generous nature, and to exhort, by a gentle violence, such concessions as were requisite for the establishment of public liberty. That he had promised, not only on the word of a prince, but also on that of a gentleman (the expression which he had been pleased to use), that, after the supply was granted, the parliament should still have liberty to continue their deliberation: Could it be suspected, that any man, any prince, much less such a one, whose word was, as yet, sacred and inviolate, would, for so small a motive, forfeit his honor, and, with it, all future trust and confidence, by breaking a promise, so public and so solemn? That even if the parliament should be deceived by reposing in him this confidence, they neither lost any thing, nor ran any manner of risk; since it was evidently necessary, for the security of public peace, to supply him with money, in order to suppress the Scotch rebellion. That he had so far suited his first demands to their prejudices, that he only asked a supply for a few months, and was willing, after so short a trust, to fall again into dependance, and to trust them for his farther support and subsistence. That if he now seemed to desire something farther, he also made them, in return, a considerable offer, and was willing, for the future, to depend on them for a revenue, which was quite requisite for public honor and security. That the nature of the

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English constitution supposed a mutual confidence betwixt king and parliament: And if they should refuse it on their part, especially with circumstances of such outrage and indignity; what could be expected but a total dissolution of government, and violent factions, followed by the most dangerous convulsions and intestine disorders?

In opposition to these arguments, it was urged by the malecontent party, That the court had discovered, on their side, but a few symptoms of that mutual trust and confidence, to which they were now so kindly invited the commons. That eleven years intermission of parliaments, the longest which was to be found in the whole English annals, was a sufficient indication of the jealousy entertained against the people; or rather of designs formed for the suppression of all their liberties and privileges. That the ministers might well plead necessity; nor could any thing, indeed, be a stronger proof of some invincible necessity, than their embracing a measure, against which they had conceived so violent an aversion, as the assembling of an English parliament. That this necessity, however, was purely ministerial, not national: And if the same grievances, ecclesiastical and civil, under which they themselves labored had pushed the Scotch to extremities; was it requisite, that the English should forge their own chains, by imposing chains on their unhappy neighbors? That the antient and uninterrupted practice of all parliaments was to give grievances the precedence of supply; and that this order, so carefully observed by their ancestors, was founded on a jealousy inherent in the constitution, and was never interpreted as any particular diffidence of the present sovereign. That a practice, which had been upheld, during times the most favorable to liberty, could not, in common prudence, be departed from, where such undeniable reasons for suspicion had been afforded. That it was ridiculous to plead the advanced season, and the urgent occasion for supply; when it plainly appeared, that, in order to afford a pretext for his topic, and to seduce the commons, great political contrivance had been employed. That the writs

for elections were issued early in the winter; and if the meeting of the parliament had not purposely been delayed, till so near the commencement of military operations, there had been leisure sufficient to have redressed all national grievances, and to have proceeded afterwards to an examination of the King's occasion for supply. That the intention of so gross an artifice was to engage the commons, under pretext of necessity, to violate the regular order of parliament; and a precedent of that kind being once established, no inquiry into public measures would ever afterwards be permitted. That no argument, more unfavorable, could be pleaded for supply, than an offer to abolish ship-money; a taxation, the most illegal and the most dangerous, which had ever, in any reign, been imposed upon the nation. That, by bargaining for the remission of that duty, the commons would, in a manner, ratify the right, by which it had been levied; or, at least, give encouragement for advancing new pretensions of a like nature, in hopes of resigning them on like advantageous conditions.

These reasons, joined to so many occasions of ill humor, seemed to sway with the greater number: But to make the matter worse, Sir Harry Vane, the secretary, told the commons, without any authority from the King, that nothing less than twelve subsidies would be accepted as a recompence for the abolition of ship-money. This assertion, proceeding from the indiscretion, if we are not rather to call it, the treachery of Vane, displeased the house, by marking a stiffness and rigidity in the King, which, in a claim so ill grounded, seemed inexcusable. We are informed likeways, that some men, who were thought to understand the state of the nation, affirmed in the house, that the amount of twelve subsidies was a greater sum than could be found in all England. Such were the happy ignorance and inexperience of those times, with regard to taxes.

The King was in great doubt and perplexity. He saw, that his friends in the house, were out-numbered by his enemies, and that the same councils were still prevalent, which had ever bred such opposition and disturbance. In-

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stead of hoping, that any supply would be given him, to carry on war against the Scotch, whom the majority of the house regarded as their best friends and firmest allies; he expected every day, that they would present him an address for making peace with those rebels. And if the house met again, a vote, he was informed, would certainly pass, to blast his revenue of ship-money; and thereby renew all the opposition, which, with so much difficulty, he had surmounted, in levying that taxation. Where great evils lie on all sides, it is very difficult to follow the best counsels; nor is it any wonder, that the King, whose capacity was not equal to situations of such extreme delicacy, should hastily have formed and executed a resolution of dissolving this parliament: A measure, however, of which he soon after repented, and which the subsequent events, more than any convincing reasons, inclined every one to condemn. The last parliament, which had ended with such rigor and violence, had yet, at first, covered their intentions with greater appearance of moderation than this parliament had hitherto assumed.

An abrupt and violent dissolution must necessarily excite great discontents among the people, who usually put intire confidence in their representatives, and expect from them the redress of all grievances. As if there were not already sufficient grounds of complaint, the King persevered still in these misguided councils, which, from experience, he might have been sensible, were so dangerous and destructive. Bellasis and Sir John Hotham were summoned before the council; and refusing to give any account of their conduct in parliament, were committed to prison. From Crew, chairman to the committee on religion, all the petitions and complaints, which had been sent to the committee, were demanded; and on his refusal to deliver them, he was sent to the tower. The studies and even the pockets of the Earl of Warwic and Lord Broke, before the expiration of privilege, were searched, in expectation of finding treasonable papers. 'Tis hard to say, whether the imprudence or illegality of these measures, was most egregious. But the King

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never respected sufficiently the privileges of the parliament; and, by his example, he farther confirmed their resolution, when they acquired power, to pay like disregard to the prerogatives of the crown.

Tho' the parliament was dissolved, the convocation was still allowed to sit; a practice, of which, since the reformation, there were but few examples,<sup>3</sup> and which was, for that reason, supposed by many to be irregular. Beside granting to the King a supply from the spirituality, and framing many canons, the convocation, jealous of like innovations with those, which had taken place in Scotland, imposed an oath on the clergy, and the graduates in the universities, by which every one swore to maintain the established government of the church by archbishops, bishops, deans, chapters, &c. These steps, in the present discontented humor of the nation, were commonly esteemed illegal; because not ratified by consent of parliament, in whom all authority was supposed to be centered. And nothing, besides could afford greater matter of ridicule, than an oath, which contained an *et caetera* in the midst of it.

The people, who generally abhorred the convocation as much as they adored the parliament, could scarce be kept from insulting and abusing this assembly; and the King was obliged to set guards, in order to protect them. An attack too was made in the night upon Laud, in his palace of Lambeth, by above 500 persons; and he found it necessary to fortify himself for his defence. A multitude of two thousand sectaries entered St Pauls, where the high commission then sat; tore down all the benches; and cried out, *No bishops, no high commission.* All these instances of discontent were presages of some great revolution; had the court possessed sufficient skill to discern the danger, or sufficient power to provide against it.

In this disposition of men's minds, it was in vain, that the King issued a declaration, in order to convince his people of the necessity, which he lay under, of dissolving the last parliament. The chief topic, on which he insisted, was, that

3. There was one in 1586, See history of Archbishop Laud, p. 80.

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the commons imitated the bad example of all their predecessors of late years, in making continual encroachments on his authority, in censuring his whole administration and conduct, in discussing every circumstance of public government, and in their indirect bargaining and contracting with their king for supply; as if nothing ought to be given him but what he should purchase, either by quitting somewhat of his royal prerogative, or by diminishing and lessening his revenue. Those practices, he said, were contrary to the maxims of their ancestors; and these practices were totally incompatible with monarchy.

It must be confessed, that the King here touched upon that circumstance in the English constitution, which it is most difficult, or rather altogether impossible, to regulate by laws, and which must be governed by certain delicate ideas of propriety and decency, rather than by any exact rule or prescription. To deny the parliament all right of remonstrating against what they esteem grievances, were to reduce that assembly to a total insignificance, and to deprive the people of every advantage, which they could reap from popular councils. To complain of the parliament's employing the power of taxation, as the means of extorting concessions from their sovereign, were to expect, that they would intirely disarm themselves, and renounce the sole expedient, provided by the constitution, for ensuring to the kingdom a just and legal administration. In all periods of English story, there occur instances of their remonstrating with their princes in the freest manner, and of their refusing supply, when disgusted with any circumstance of public conduct. 'Tis, however, certain, that this power, tho' essential to parliaments, may easily be abused, as well by the frequency and the minuteness of their remonstrances, as by their intrusion into every part of the king's councils and determinations. Under color of advice, they may give disguised orders; and in complaining of grievances, they may draw to themselves every power of government. Whatever measure is embraced, without consulting them, may be pronounced an oppression of the people; and till corrected, they

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may refuse the most necessary supplies to their indigent sovereign. From the very nature of this parliamentary liberty, 'tis evident, that it must be left unbounded by law: For who can foretell, how frequently grievances may occur, or what part of administration may be affected by them? From the nature too of the human frame, it may be expected, that this liberty would be exerted in its full extent, and no branch of authority be allowed to remain unmolested in the hands of the prince: For, will the weak limitations of respect and decorum be sufficient to restrain human ambition, which so frequently breaks thro' all the prescriptions of law and justice?

But here it is observable, that the wisdom of the English constitution, or rather, the concurrence of accidents, has provided, in different periods, certain irregular checks to this privilege of parliament, and thereby maintained, in some tolerable measure, the dignity and authority of the crown.

In the antient constitution, before the beginning of the seventeenth century, the meetings of parliament were precarious, and were not frequent. The sessions were very short; and the members had no leisure, either to get acquainted with each other, or with public business. The ignorance of the age made men more submissive to that authority, which governed them. And above all, the large revenues of the crown, with the small expence of government during that period, rendered the prince almost independent, and taught the parliament to preserve a proper submission and duty towards him.

In our present constitution, many accidents, which have rendered government, every where, as well as in Britain, much more burthensome than formerly, have thrown into the hands of the crown the disposal of a very large revenue, and have enabled the king, by the private interest and ambition of the members, to restrain the public interest and ambition of the body. While the opposition, (for we must still have an opposition, open or disguised) endeavors to draw every branch of administration under the cognizance

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of parliament, the courtiers reserve a part to the disposal of the crown; and the royal prerogative, tho' diminished of its antient powers, still maintains a due weight in the ballance of the constitution.

It was the fate of the house of Stuart to govern England at a period, when the former source of authority was already much diminished, and before the latter began to flow in any tolerable abundance. Without a regular and fixed foundation, the throne continually tottered; and the prince sat upon it anxiously and precariously. Every expedient, used by James and Charles, in order to support their dignity, we have seen attended with sensible inconveniences. The majesty of the crown, derived from antient powers and prerogatives, procured respect; and checked the approaches of insolent intruders: But it engendered in the king so high an idea of his own rank and station, as made him incapable of stooping to popular courses, or submitting, in any degree, to the control of parliament. The alliance with the hierarchy stengthened law by the sanction of religion: But it enraged the puritanical party, and exposed the prince to the attacks of enemy, numerous, furious, and implacable. The memory too of these two kings, from like causes, has been attended, in some degree, with the same infelicity, which pursued them during the whole course of their lives. Tho' it must be confessed, that their skill in government was noway proportioned to the extreme delicacy of their situation; a sufficient indulgence has not been given them, and all the blame, by several historians, has been unjustly thrown on *their* side. Their violations of law, particularly those of Charles, are palpable, and obvious, and were, generally speaking, transgressions of a plain limit, which was marked out to royal authority. But the encroachments of the commons, tho' less positive and determinate, are no less discernible by good judges, and were equally capable of destroying the just ballance of the constitution. While they exercised the powers, transmitted to them, in a manner more independent, and less compliant, than had ever before been practised; the kings were, imprudently, but, as

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they imagined, from necessity, tempted to assume powers, which had scarce ever been exercised or claimed by the crown. And from the shock of these opposite pretensions, a role all the factions, convulsions, and disorders, which attended that period.

In this digression, I have here thought proper to indulge myself. The philosophy of government, accompanying a narration of its revolutions, may render history more intelligible as well as instructive. And nothing will tend more to abate the acrimony of party-disputes, than to show men, that those events, which they impute to their adversaries as the deepest crimes, were the natural, if not the necessary result of the situation, in which the nation was placed, during any period. We now return to our subject.

The King disappointed of parliamentary subsidies, was obliged to have recourse to other expedients, in order to supply his urgent necessities. The ecclesiastical subsidies served him in some stead; and it seemed but just, that the clergy should contribute to a war, which was, in a great measure, of their own raising. He borrowed money from his ministers and courtiers; and so much was he beloved among them, that above 300,000 pound was subscribed in a few days: Tho' nothing surely could be more disagreeable to a prince, full of dignity, than to lie a burthen on his friends, instead of being a support to them. Some attempts were made towards forcing a loan from the citizens; but still repelled by the spirit of liberty, which was now become unconquerable. About 40,000 pound was borrowed from the Spanish merchants, who had bullion in the tower, exposed to the attempts of the King. Coat and conduct-money for the soldiery was levied on the counties; an antient practice, but supposed to be abolished by the petition of right. All the pepper was bought from the east-India company upon trust, and sold, at great discount, for ready money. Such were the shifts, to which Charles was reduced. The fresh difficulties, which, amid the present distresses, were, every day, raised, with regard to the payment of ship-money, obliged him to exert continual acts of authority, augmented

extremely the discontents of the people, and increased his indigence and necessities.

The present expedients, however, enabled the King, tho' with great difficulty, to march his army, consisting of 19,000 foot and 2,000 horse. The Earl of Northumberland was appointed general: The Earl of Strafford, who was called over from Ireland, lieutenant-general: Lord Conway, general of the horse. A very small fleet was thought sufficient to serve the purposes of this expedition.

So great are the effects of zeal and unanimity, that the Scotch army, tho' somewhat superior, were sooner ready than the King's; and advanced to the borders of England. To engage them to pass, beside their general knowledge of the discords of that kingdom, Lord Saville had forged a letter, in the name of six noblemen, the most considerable of England, in which the Scotch were invited to assist their neighbors, in procuring a redress of their grievances. Notwithstanding these warlike preparations and hostile attempts, the covenanters still preserved the most pacific and most submissive language; and entered England, as they said, with no other view, than to obtain access to the King's presence, and lay their humble petition at his royal feet. At Newburn upon Tyne, they were opposed by a detachment of 4500 men under Conway, who seemed resolute to dispute with them the passage of the river. The Scotch first entreated them, with great civility, not to stop them in their march to their gracious sovereign; and then attacked them with great bravery, killed several, and chased the rest from their ground. Such a panic seized the whole English army, that the forces at Newcastle fled immediately to Durham; and not yet thinking themselves safe, they deserted that town, and retreated into Yorkshire.

The Scotch took possession of Newcastle; and tho' sufficiently elated with their victory, they preserved exact discipline, and persevered in their resolution of paying for every thing, in order to maintain still the appearance of an amicable correspondence with England. They also dispatched messengers to the King, who was arrived at Yorke; and they

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took care, after the advantage, which they had obtained, to redouble their expressions of loyalty, duty, and submission to his person, and even made apologies, full of sorrow and contrition, for their late victory.

Charles was in a very distressed situation. The nation was universally and highly discontented. The army was discouraged, and began likeways to be discontented, both from the contagion of general disgust, and as an excuse for their misbehavior, which they were desirous of representing rather as want of will than of courage to fight. The treasury too was quite exhausted, and every expedient for supply had been tried to the uttermost. No event had happened, but what might have been foreseen as necessary, or at least, very probable; yet was there no provision made, nor resolution taken, against such an exigency.

In order to prevent the advance of the Scotch upon him, the King agreed to a treaty, and named sixteen English Noblemen, who met with eleven Scotch commissioners at Rippon. The Earls of Hertford, Bedford, Salisbury, Warwic, Essex, Holland, Bristol, and Berkshire, the Lords Kimbolton, Wharton, Dunsmore, Paget, Broke, Saville, Paulet, and Howard of Escric, were chosen by the King; all of them popular men, and consequently supposed noway averse to the Scotch invasion, nor unacceptable to that nation.

An address arrived from the city of London, petitioning for a parliament; the great point, to which all men's projects at this time tended. Twelve Noblemen presented a petition to the same purpose. But the King contented himself with summoning a great council of the peers to Yorke; a measure, which had formerly been taken in cases of sudden emergency, but which, at present, could serve no manner of purpose. Perhaps, the King, who dreaded, above all things, the house of commons, and who never sufficiently respected the constitution, thought, that, in his present urgent distresses, he might be enabled to levy subsides by the authority of the peers alone. But the employing, so long, a plea of necessity, which was evidently false and ill grounded, rendered it impossible for him to avail himself of

a necessity, which was now at last become real and inevitable.

By Northumberland's sickness, the command of the army had devolved on Strafford. That Nobleman possessed more vigor of mind than the King or any of the council. He advised Charles rather to put all to hazard, than submit to such unworthy terms as were likely to be imposed upon him. The loss, sustained at Newburn, he said, was inconsiderable; and tho a panic had, for the time, seized the army, that was nothing strange among new levied troops; and the Scotch, being in the same condition, would, no doubt, be liable, in their turn, to a like accident. His opinion, therefore, was, that the King should push forward, and attack the Scotch, and bring the affair to a quick decision; and, if ever so unsuccessful, nothing worse could befall him, than what, from his inactivity, he would certainly be exposed to. To show how easy it would be to execute this project, he ordered an assault to be made on some of the Scotch quarters, and he gained an advantage over them. No cessation of arms had, as yet, been agreed to, during the treaty at Rippon; yet great clamor prevailed, on account of this act of hostility. And when it was known, that the officer, who conducted the attack, was a papist, a violent outcry was raised against the King, for employing that hated sect, in the murder of his protestant subjects.

It may be worthy of remark, that several mutinies had arisen among the English troops, when marching to join the army; and some officers had been murdered, merely on the suspicion of their being papists. The petition of right had abolished all courts-martial; and by an inconvenience, which naturally attended the plan, as yet, new and unformed, of regular and rigid liberty; it was found absolutely impossible for the generals to govern the army, by all the authority, which the King could legally confer upon them. The lawyers had declared, that martial law could not be exercised, except in the very presence of an enemy; and because it had been found requisite to execute a mutineer, the generals thought it requisite, for their safety, to apply for a

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pardon from the crown. This weakness, however, was carefully concealed from the army; and Lord Conway said, that, if any lawyer was so imprudent as to discover the secret to the soldiers, it would be requisite instantly to refute him, and to hang the lawyer himself, by sentence of a court martial.

An army new levied, undisciplined, frightened, seditious, ill-paid, and governed by no proper authority, was very unfit for withstanding a victorious and high spirited enemy, and retaining in subjection a discontented and zealous nation.

Charles, in despair of being able to stem the torrent, at last resolved to yield to it: And as he foresaw, that the great council of the peers would advise him to call a parliament, he told them, in his first speech, that he had already taken that resolution. He informed them likeways, that the Queen, in a letter, which she had wrote to him, had very earnestly recommended that measure. This good Prince, who was extremely attached to his consort, and who passionately wished to render her popular in the nation, forgot not, amid all his distress, the interest of his domestic tenderness.

In order to submit both armies (for the King was obliged, in order to save the northern counties, to pay his enemies) Charles wrote to the city, desiring a loan of 200,000 pound. And the lords commissioners for the treaty, whose authority was now much greater than that of their sovereign, joined in the same request. So low was this Prince already fallen, in the eyes of his own subjects!

As many difficulties occurred in the negotiation with the Scotch, it was proposed to transfer the treaty from Rippon to London: A proposal willingly embraced by the Scotch, who were now sure of treating with advantage, in a place, where the King, they foresaw, would be, in a manner, a prisoner, in the midst of his implacable enemies and their determined friends.

## CHAP. V

*Meeting of the long parliament – Strafford and Laud impeached – Finch and Windbank fly – Great authority of the commons – The bishops attacked – Tonnage and poundage – Triennial bill – Strafford's trial – Bill of attainder – Execution of Strafford – High-commission and star-chamber abolished – King's journey to Scotland*

THE causes of disgust, which had, every day, been multiplying in England for above thirty years, were now come to full maturity, and threatened the kingdom with some great revolution or convulsion. The uncertain and undefined limits of prerogative and privilege had been eagerly disputed during that whole period; and in every controversy betwixt prince and people, the question, however doubtful, had always been decided by each party, in favor of its own pretensions. Too lightly moved by the appearance of necessity, the King had even assumed powers, altogether incompatible with the principles of limited government, and had rendered it impossible for his most zealous partizans to justify his conduct, except by topics so odious, that they were more fitted to inflame, than appease, the general discontent. Those great supports of public authority, law and religion, had likeways, by the unbounded compliance of judges and prelates, lost much of their influence over the people; or rather, had, in a great measure, gone over to the side of faction, and authorized the spirit of opposition and rebellion. The nobility too, whom the King had no means of retaining by suitable offices and preferments, had been seized with the general discontent, and unwarily threw themselves into the scale, which began already too much to preponderate. Sensible of the encroachments, which had evidently been made by royal authority, men entertained no jealousy of the

commons, whose enterprises for the acquisition of power, had ever been covered with the appearance of public good, and had hitherto gone no farther than some disappointed efforts or endeavors. The progress of the Scotch malecontents reduced the crown to an entire dependance for supply: Their union with the popular party in England, brought great accession of authority to the latter: The near prospect of success, rouzed all the latent murmurs and pretensions of the nation, which had hitherto been held in such violent constraint: And the torrent of general inclination and opinion ran so strong against the court, that the King was in no situation to refuse any reasonable pretensions of the popular leaders, either for defining or limiting the powers of his prerogative. Even many exorbitant claims, in the present situation, would probably be made, and must necessarily be complied with.

The triumph of the malecontents over the church was not yet so immediate or certain. Tho' the political and religious puritans mutually lent assistance to each other, there were many who joined the former, and yet declined all manner of connexion with the latter. The hierarchy had been established in England ever since the reformation: The Romish church, in all ages, had carefully maintained that form of ecclesiastical government: The antient fathers too bore testimony to episcopal jurisdiction: And tho' parity seems at first to have had place among christian pastors, the period, during which it prevailed, was so short, that few undisputed traces of it remained in history. The bishops and their more zealous partizans inferred thence the divine indefeizable right of prelacy: Others regarded that institution as venerable and useful: And, if the love of novelty led some to adopt the new rites and discipline of the puritans; the reverence to antiquity retained many in their attachment to the liturgy and government of the church. It behoved, therefore, the zealous innovators in parliament, to proceed with some caution and reserve. By pushing all measures, which reduced the exorbitant powers of the crown, they hoped to disarm the King, whom they justly

regarded, from principle, inclination, and policy, to be the determined patron of the hierarchy. By declaiming against the supposed encroachments and tyranny of the prelates, they endeavoured to carry the nation, from a hatred of their persons, to an opposition against their office and character. And when men were enlisted in party, it would not be difficult, they thought, to lead them by degrees into measures, for which they formerly entertained the greatest aversion. Tho' the new sectaries composed not, at first, the majority of the nation, they were inflamed, as is usual among innovators, with extreme zeal for their opinions. Their unsurmountable passion, disguised to themselves, as well as to others, under the appearance of holy fervors, was well qualified to make proselites, and seize the minds of the ignorant multitude. And one furious enthusiast was able, by his active industry, to surmount the indolent efforts of many sober and reasonable antagonists.

When the nation, therefore, was so generally discontented, and little suspicion was entertained of any design to subvert the church and monarchy; no wonder, that almost all elections ran in favor of those, who, by their high pretensions to piety and patriotism, had fostered and encouraged the national prejudices. 'Tis a usual compliment to regard the king's inclination in the choice of a speaker; and Charles had intended to advance Gardiner, recorder of London, to that important trust: But so little interest did the crown, at that time, possess thro' the nation, that Gardiner was disappointed of his election, not only in London, but in every other place, where it was attempted: And the King was obliged to make the choice of speaker fall on Lenthal, a lawyer of some character, but not sufficiently qualified for so high and difficult an office.

The eager expectations of men with regard to a parliament, summoned at so critical a juncture, and during such general discontents; a parliament, which, from the situation of public affairs, could not be abruptly dissolved, and which was to execute every thing left unfinished by former parliaments; these views, so important and interesting, engaged

## *Charles I*

the attendance of all the members; and the house of commons was never observed to be, from the beginning, so numerous and frequent. Without any interval, therefore, they immediately entered upon business, and by unanimous consent they struck a blow, which may, in a manner, be regarded as decisive.

The Earl of Strafford was considered as chief minister of state, both on account of the credit, which he possessed with his master, and of his own great and uncommon vigor and capacity. By a concurrence of accidents, this man labored under the severe hatred of all the three nations, which composed the British monarchy. The Scotch, whose authority ran extremely high, looked on him as the capital enemy of their country, and one whose councils and influence they had most reason to apprehend. He had engaged the parliament of Ireland to advance great subsidies, in order to support a war against them: He had levied an army of 9,000 men, with which he had menaced all their western coast: He had obliged the Scotch, who lived under his government, to renounce the covenant, their national idol: He had in Ireland proclaimed the Scotch covenanters rebels and traitors, even before the King had issued any such declaration against them in England: And he had ever dissuaded his master against the late treaty and suspension of arms, which he regarded as dangerous and dishonorable. So avowed and violent were the Scotch in their resentment of all these measures, that they had refused to send commissioners to treat at Yorke, as was first proposed; because, they said, the lieutenant of Ireland; their capital enemy, being general of the King's forces, had there the chief command and authority.

Strafford, first as deputy, then as Lord lieutenant, had governed Ireland during eight years with great vigilance, activity, and prudence, but with very little popularity. In a nation so averse to the English government and religion, these very virtues were sufficient to draw on him the public hatred. The manners too and character of this great man, tho' to all full of courtesy, and to his friends full of affec-

tion, were, at bottom, haughty, rigid, and severe. His authority and influence, during the time of his government, had been unlimited; but no sooner did adversity seize him, than the concealed aversion of the nation blazed out at once, and the Irish parliament used every expedient to aggravate the charge against him.

The universal discontent, which prevailed in England against the court, was all pointed towards the Earl of Strafford; tho' without any particular reason, but because he was the minister of state, whom the King most favored and most trusted. His family was honorable, his paternal fortune considerable: Yet envy attended his sudden and great elevation. And his former associates in popular councils, finding, that he owed his advancement to the desertion of their cause, represented him as the great apostate of the commonwealth, whom it behoved them to sacrifice, as a victim to public justice.

Strafford, sensible of the load of popular prejudices, under which he labored, would gladly have declined attendance on the parliament; and he begged the King's permission to withdraw himself to his government of Ireland, or at least to remain at the head of the army in Yorkshire; where many opportunities, he hoped, would offer, by reason of his distance, to elude the attacks of his enemies. But Charles, who had intire confidence in the Earl's capacity, thought, that his councils would be extremely useful, during the critical session, which approached. And when Strafford still insisted on the danger of appearing amid so many enraged enemies, the King, little apprehensive, that his own authority was so suddenly to expire, promised him protection, and assured him, that not a hair of his head should be touched by the parliament.

No sooner was Strafford's arrival known, than a concerted attack was made upon him in the house of commons. Pym, in a long, studied discourse, divided into many heads after his manner, enumerated all the grievances, under which the nation labored; and, from a complication of such oppressions, inferred, that a deliberate plan had been

formed of changing the intire frame of government, and subverting the antient laws and liberties of the kingdom. Could any thing, he said, increase our indignation against so enormous and criminal a project, it would be to find, that, during the reign of the best of princes, the constitution had been endangered by the worst of ministers, and that the virtues of the King had been reduced by wicked and pernicious councils. We must inquire, added he, from what fountain these waters of bitterness flow; and tho' doubtless many evil counsellors will be found to have contributed their endeavors, yet is there one, who challenges the infamous pre-eminence, and who, by his courage, enterprize, and capacity, is intitled to the first place among these betrayers of their country. He is the Earl of Strafford, lieutenant of Ireland, and president of the council of Yorke, who, in both places, and in all other provinces, where he has been entrusted with authority, has raised ample monuments of tyranny, and will appear, from a survey of his actions, to be the chief promoter of every arbitrary council. Some instances of imperious expressions, as well as actions, were given by Pym; who afterwards entered into a more personal attack of that minister, and endeavored to expose his whole character and manners. The austere genius of Strafford, occupied in the pursuits of ambition, had not rendered his breast altogether inaccessible to the tender passions, or secured him from the dominion of the fair; and in that sullen age, when the irregularities of pleasure were more reproachful than the most odious crimes, these weaknesses were thought worthy of being mentioned, along with his treasons, before so great an assembly. And upon the whole, the orator concluded, that it belonged to the house to provide a remedy proportionable to the disease, and prevent the farther mischiefs, justly to be apprehended from the influence, which this man had acquired over the measures and councils of their sovereign.

Sir John Clotworthy an Irish gentleman, Sir John Hot-ham of Yorkshire, and many others, entered into the same topics: And after several hours, spent in bitter invective,

when the doors were locked, in order to prevent all discovery of their purpose; it was moved, in consequence of the resolution secretly taken, that Strafford should immediately be impeached of high treason. This motion was received with universal approbation; nor was there, in all the debate, one person, who offered to stop the torrent by any testimony in favor of the Earl's conduct. Lord Falkland alone, tho known to be his enemy, modestly desired the house to consider, whether it would not better suit the gravity of their proceedings, first to digest, by a committee, many of those particulars, which had been mentioned, before they sent up an accusation against him. By Pym it was ingenuously answered, That such a delay might probably blast all their hopes, and put it out of their power to proceed any farther in the prosecution: That when Strafford should learn, that so many of his enormities were discovered, his conscience would dictate his condemnation; and so great was his power and credit, he would immediately procure the dissolution of the parliament, or attempt some other desperate measure for his own preservation: That the commons were only accusers, not judges; and it was the province of the peers to determine, whether such a complication of enormous crimes, in one person, did not amount to the highest crime known by the law. Without farther debate, the accusation was voted: Pym was chosen to carry up the impeachment: Most of the house accompanied him on so agreeable an errand: And Strafford, who had just entered the house of peers, and little expected so hasty a prosecution, was immediately, upon this general charge, ordered into custody with several symptoms of violent prejudice in his judges, as well as in his prosecutors.

In the inquiry concerning grievances and the censure of past measures, Laud could not long escape the severe scrutiny of the commons; who were led too, in their accusation of that prelate, as well by their prejudices against his whole order, as by the extreme antipathy, which his intemperate zeal had drawn upon him. After a deliberation, which scarce lasted half an hour, an impeachment for high treason

was resolved on against this subject, the first, both in rank and in favor, thro'out the kingdom. Tho' this incident, considering the example of Strafford's impeachment and the present disposition of the nation and parliament, needed be no surprize to him; yet was he betrayed into some passion, when the accusation was presented. *The commons themselves, he said, tho' his accusers, did not believe him guilty of the crime, with which they charged him:* An indiscretion, which, next day, upon more mature deliberation, he desired leave to retract; but so little favorable were the peers, that they refused him this advantage or indulgence. Laud was immediately, upon the general charge, sequestered from parliament, and committed to custody.

The capital article, insisted on against these two great men, was the design, which the commons supposed to have been formed for subverting the laws and constitution of England, and introducing arbitrary and unlimited authority into the kingdom. Of all the King's ministers, no one was so obnoxious in this respect as the Lord keeper, Finch. He it was, who, being speaker in the King's third parliament, had left the chair, and refused to put the question, when ordered by the house. The extrajudicial opinion of the judges in the case of ship-money had been procured by his intrigues, persuasions, and even menaces. In all unpopular and illegal measures, he was ever most active; and he was even believed to have declared publicly, that, while he was keeper, an order of the council should always with him be equivalent to a law. To appease the rising displeasure of the commons, he desired to be heard at their bar. He prostrated himself with all humility before them; but availed himself nothing. An impeachment was resolved on; and in order to escape their fury, he thought proper secretly to withdraw, and to retire into Holland. As he was not esteemed equal to Strafford or even to Laud, either in capacity or in fidelity to his master; it was generally believed, that his escape had been connived at by the popular leaders. His impeachment, however, in his absence, was carried up to the house of peers.

Sir Francis Windebank, the secretary, was a creature of

Laud; and that was sufficient reason, for his being extremely obnoxious to the commons. He was secretly suspected too of the crime of popery; and it was known, that, from complaisance to the Queen, and indeed in compliance with the King's maxims of government, he had granted many indulgences to catholics, and had signed warrants for the pardon of priests, and their delivery from confinement. By Grimstone, a popular haranguer, he was called, in the house, the very pander and broker to the whore of Babylon. Finding, that the scrutiny of the commons was pointing towards him, and being sensible, that England was no longer a place of safety for men of his character, he suddenly made his escape into France.

Thus, in a few weeks, this house of commons, not opposed or rather seconded by the peers, had produced such a revolution in the government, that the two most powerful and most favored ministers of the King were thrown into the tower, and daily expected to be tried for their life: Two other ministers, by flight alone, had saved themselves from a like fate: All the King's servants saw evidently, that no protection could be given them by their master: A new jurisdiction was erected, in the nation; and before that tribunal all those trembled, who had before exulted most in their credit and authority.

What rendered the power of the commons the more formidable, was the extreme prudence, with which it was conducted. Not contented with the authority, which they had acquired by attacking these great ministers; they were resolved to render the most considerable bodies of the nation obnoxious to them. Tho' the idol of the people, they wisely determined to fortify themselves likeways with terrors, and to overawe those, who might still be inclined to support the falling ruins of monarchy.

During the late military operations, several powers had been exerted by the lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants of the counties: And the powers, tho' quite requisite for the defence of the nation, and even warranted by all former precedents, yet being unauthorized by statute, were now

voted to be illegal; and the persons, who had assumed them, declared *delinquents*. This term was newly come into vogue, and expressed a degree and species of guilt, not exactly known or ascertained. In consequence of that determination, many of the nobility and prime gentry of the nation, while only exerting, as they imagined, the lawful rights of magistracy, unexpectedly found themselves involved in the crime of delinquency. And the commons reaped this multiplied advantage by their vote: They disarmed the crown; they established the maxims of rigid law and liberty; and they spred the terror of their own authority.

The writs for ship-money had been directed to the sheriffs, who were required, and even obliged under severe penalties, to assess the sums upon individuals, and to levy them by their authority: Yet were all the sheriffs, and all those employed in that illegal service, by a very rigorous sentence, voted to be delinquents. The King, by the maxims of law, could do no wrong: His ministers and servants, of whatever degree, in case of any violations of the constitution, were alone culpable.

All the farmers and officers of the customs, who had been employed, during so many years, in levying tonnage and poundage and the new impositions, were likeways declared criminal, and were afterwards glad to compound for a pardon by paying a fine of 150,000 pound.

Every discretionary or arbitrary sentence of the star-chamber and high commission; courts, which, from their very constitution, were arbitrary; underwent a severe scrutiny: And all those, who had any hand in such sentences, were voted to be liable to the penalties of law. No minister of the King, no member of the council, but what found himself exposed by this determination.

The judges, who had given their voices against Hambden in the trial of ship-money, were accused before the peers, and obliged to find security for their appearance. Berkeley, one of the judges of king's bench, was seized by order of the house, even when sitting in his tribunal; and all men saw with astonishment the irresistible authority of their jurisdiction.

The sanction of the lords and commons, as well as that of the King, was declared requisite for the confirmation of all ecclesiastical canons: And this judgment, it must be confessed, however reasonable, at least useful, it would have been difficult to justify by any precedent. But the present was no time for question or dispute. That decision, which abolished all legislative power except that of parliament, was altogether requisite for compleating the new plan of liberty, and rendering it quite uniform and systematical. Almost all the bench of bishops, and the most considerable of the inferior clergy, who had voted in the late convocation, found themselves exposed, by these new principles, to the imputation of delinquency.

The most unpopular of all Charles's measures, the most impolitic, the most oppressive, and even, excepting ship-money, the most illegal, was the revival of monopolies, so solemnly abolished, after re-iterated endeavors, by a recent act of parliament. Sensible of this unhappy measure, the King had, of himself, recalled, during the time of his first expedition against Scotland, many of these destructive patents, and the rest were now annihilated by authority of parliament, and every one concerned in them declared delinquents. The commons carried so far their detestation of this odious measure, that they assumed a power unknown to all their predecessors, and expelled all their members, who were monopolists or projectors. An artifice too, by which, beside increasing their own privileges, they weakened still farther the very small party, which the King secretly retained in the house. Mildmay, a notorious monopolist, yet having associated himself with the ruling party, was still allowed to keep his seat. In all questions indeed of elections, no rule of decision was observed; and nothing farther was regarded than the affections and attachment of the parties. Men's passions were too much heated to be shocked with any instance of injustice, which served ends so popular as those pursued by this house of commons.

The whole sovereign power being thus, in a manner, transferred to the commons, and the government, without

any seeming violence or disorder, changed, in a moment, from a monarchy, almost absolute, to a pure democracy; the popular leaders seemed willing, for some time, to suspend their active vigor, and to consolidate their authority, 'ere they proceeded to any strong exercise of it. Every day produced some new harangue on past grievances. The detestation of former usurpations, was farther enlivened: The jealousy of liberty rouzed: And suitable to the true spirit of free government, an equal indignation was excited, by the view of a violated constitution, as by the ravages of the most enormous tyranny.

Now was the time, when genius and capacity of all kinds, free'd from the restraint of authority, and nourished by unbounded hopes and projects, began to exert themselves, and be distinguished by the public. Then was celebrated the sagacity of Pym, more fitted for use than ornament; matured, not chilled, by his advanced age and long experience: Then was displayed the mighty ambition of Hambden, taught disguise, not moderation, from former constraint; supported by courage, conducted by prudence, embellished by modesty; but whether animated by a love of power or zeal for liberty, is still, from his untimely end, left doubtful and uncertain: Then too were known the dark, ardent, and dangerous character of St John; the impetuous spirit of Hollis, violent and sincere, open and intire in his enmities and in his friendships; the enthusiastic genius of young Vane, extravagant in the ends, which he pursued, sagacious and profound in the means, which he employed; incited by the appearances of religion, negligent of the duties of morality.

So little apology could be made for past measures, so contagious the general spirit of discontent, that even men of the most moderate tempers, and the most attached to the church and monarchy, exerted themselves with the utmost vigor in the redress of grievances, and in prosecuting the authors of them. The lively and animated Digby displayed his eloquence on this occasion, the firm and undaunted Capel, the modest and candid Palmer. In this list too of

patriot-royalists are found the virtuous names of Hyde and Falkland. Tho' in their ultimate views and intentions, these men differed widely from the former; in their present actions and discourses, an intire concurrence and unanimity was observed.

By the daily harangues and invectives against illegal usurpations, not only the house of commons inflamed themselves with the highest animosity towards the court: The nation caught new fire from their popular leaders, and seemed now to have made the first discovery of the many disorders of the government. While the law, in many instances, was openly violated, they went no farther than some secret and calm murmurs; but mounted up into rage and fury, as soon as the constitution was restored to its former integrity and vigor. The capital especially, being the seat of parliament, was highly animated with the spirit of mutiny and dissaffection. Tumults were daily raised; seditious assemblies encouraged; and every man, neglecting his own business, was wholly intent on the defence of liberty and religion. By stronger contagion, the popular affections were communicated from breast to breast, in this place of general rendezvous and society.

The harangues of members, now first published and dispersed, kept alive the discontents against the King's administration. The pulpits, delivered over to puritanical preachers and lecturers, whom the commons arbitrarily settled in all the considerable churches, rung with faction and fanaticism. Vengeance was fully taken for that long silence and constraint, in which, by the authority of Laud and the high commission, these preachers had been retained. The press, free'd from all fear or reserve, swarmed with productions, dangerous by their seditious zeal and calumny, more than by any art or eloquence of composition. Noise and fury, cant and hypocrisy, formed the sole rhetoric, which, during this tumult of various prejudices and passions, could be heard or attended to.

The severe sentence, which had been executed against Prynne, Bastwick, and Burton, now suffered a revisal from

parliament. These outrageous libellers, far from being tamed by the rigorous punishment, which they had undergone, showed still a disposition of repeating their offence; and the ministers were afraid, lest new satyres should issue from their prisons, and inflame still farther the partizans of these holy martyrs and confessors. By an arbitrary order, therefore, of council, they had been removed to remote prisons; Bastwick to Scilly, Prynne to Jersey, Burton to Guernsey; all access to them was denied; and the use of books, and of pen, ink and paper, was refused them. The sentence for these additional punishments was immediately reversed by the commons: Even the first sentence, upon examination, was declared illegal; and the judges, who passed it, were ordered to make reparation to the sufferers. When the prisoners landed in England, they were received and entertained with the highest demonstrations of affection, were attended with a mighty confluence of company, their charges were borne with great magnificence, and liberal presents bestowed on them. On their approach to any town, the whole inhabitants crowded to receive them, and welcomed their reception with shouts and acclamations. Their train still increased, as they drew near to London. Several miles from the city, the zealots of their party, in great multitudes, met them, and attended their triumphal entrance: Boughs were carried by this tumultuous procession; the roads strowed with flowers; and amid the highest exultations of joy, were intermingled loud and virulent invectives against the prelates, who had so cruelly persecuted such godly personages. The more ignoble and infamous these men were, the more sensible was the insult upon royal authority, and the more dangerous was the spirit of disaffection and mutiny, which it marked among the people.

Lilburne, Leighton, and every one, who had been punished for seditious libels during the precedent administration, now recovered their liberty, and were decreed damages on the judges and ministers of justice.

Not only the present disposition of the nation ensured impunity to all libellers: A new method of framing and

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dispersing libels was invented by the leaders of the popular frenzy. Petitions to parliament were drawn, craving redress against particular grievances; and when a sufficient number of subscriptions were procured, the petitions were presented to the commons, and immediately published. These petitions became secret bonds of association among the subscribers, and seemed to give undoubted sanction and authority to the complaints, which they contained.

"Tis pretended by historians favorable to the royal cause,<sup>1</sup> and even asserted by the King himself in a declaration,<sup>2</sup> that a most disingenuous or rather criminal practice prevailed, in conducting many of these petitions. A petition was first framed; moderate, reasonable, such as men of character willingly subscribed. The names were afterwards torn off, and affixed to another petition, which served better the purposes of the popular faction. We may judge of the wild fury, which prevailed thro'out the nation, when so scandalous an imposture, which affected such numbers of people, could be openly practised, without drawing infamy and ruin upon the managers.

So many grievances were offered, both by the members, and by petitions without doors, that the house was divided into above forty committees, charged, each of them, with the examination of some particular violation of law and liberty, which had been complained of. Beside the general committees of religion, trade, privileges, laws; many subdivisions of these were framed, and a strict scrutiny every where carried on. "Tis to be remarked, that, before the beginning of this century, when the parliament assumed less influence and authority, complaints of grievances were usually presented to the house, by any members, who had had particular opportunity of observing them. These general committees, which were a kind of inquisitorial courts, had not then been established; and we find, that the King, in a former declaration,<sup>3</sup> complains loudly of this innovation, so little favorable to royal authority. But never was so much multi-

1. Dugdale, Clarendon.

2. Husb. Coll. p. 536.

3. Published on dissolving the third parliament.

plied, as at present, the use of these committees; as indeed, there seldom had before been so much occasion for such severe remedies.

From the reports of their committees, the house daily passed votes, which mortified and astonished the court, and enflamed and animated the nation. Ship-money was declared illegal and arbitrary; the sentence against Hambden cancelled; the court of Yorke abolished; compositions of knighthood stigmatized; the enlargement of the forests condemned; patents for monopolies annulled; and every late measure of the administration treated with reproach and obloquy. Today, a sentence of the star-chamber was exclaimed against: To morrow, a decree of the high commission was complained of. Every discretionary act of council was represented as arbitrary and tyrannical: And the general inference was still inculcated, that a formed design had been laid to subvert the whole laws and constitution of the kingdom.

From necessity, the King remained entirely passive during all these violent operations. The few servants, who continued faithful to him, were seized with astonishment at the rapid progress made by the commons in power and popularity, and were glad, by their inactive and inoffensive behavior, to compound for impunity. The torrent rising to so dreadful and unexpected a height, despair seized all those, who, from interest or habits, were most attached to monarchy. And as for those, who maintained their duty to the King, merely from their regard to the constitution, they seemed, by their concurrence, to swell that inundation, which began already to deluge every thing. 'You have taken the whole machine of government in pieces', said Charles in a discourse to the parliament; 'a practice frequent with skilful artists, when they desire to clear the wheels from any rust, which may have grown upon them. The engine', continued he, 'may again be restored to its former use and motions, provided it be put up entire; so as not a pin of it be wanting.' But this was far from the intention of the commons. The machine, they thought, with some reason, was

encumbered with many wheels and springs, which retarded and crossed its operations, and destroyed its simplicity. Happy! had they proceeded with moderation, and been contented, in their present plenitude of power, to remove such parts only as might justly be deemed superfluous and incongruous.

In order to maintain that high authority which they had acquired, the commons, beside confounding and overawing their opponents, judged it requisite to inspire courage into their friends and adherents; particularly into the Scotch, and the religious puritans, to whose assistance and good offices they were already so much beholden.

No sooner were the Scotch masters of the northern counties, than they laid aside their first professions, which they had not indeed means to support, of paying for every thing; and in order to prevent the destructive expedient of plunder and free quarter, the country consented to give them a regular contribution of 850 pounds a-day, in full of their subsistence. The parliament, that they might relieve the northern counties from so grievous an oppression, agreed to remit pay to the Scotch, as well as to the English army; and because subsidies would be levied too slowly for so urgent an occasion, money was borrowed from the citizens upon the security of particular members. Two subsidies, a very small pittance,<sup>4</sup> were at first voted; and as the intention of this supply was to indemnify the members, who, by their private, had supported public credit, this pretext was immediately laid hold of, and the money was ordered to be paid, not into the treasury, but into commissioners appointed by parliament: A practice, which, as it diminished the authority of the crown, was very willingly embraced, and was afterwards continued by the commons, with regard to every branch of revenue which they granted to the King. The invasion of the Scotch had evidently been the cause of assembling the parliament: The presence of their army reduced the King to that total subjection in which he was now held: The commons, for this reason, very openly professed

4. It appears, that a subsidy was now fallen to 50,000 pounds.

their intention of retaining these invaders till all their enemies should be suppressed, and all their purposes effected. *We cannot yet spare the Scotch*, said Strode plainly in the house; *the sons of Zerviah are still too strong for us*: An allusion to some passage of the Bible, according to the mode of that age. Eighty thousand pounds a-month was requisite for the subsistence of the two armies; a sum much greater than the kingdom had ever been accustomed, in any former period, to pay to the public. And tho' several subsidies, along with a poll-tax, were, from time to time, voted to answer the charge; the commons took care still to be in debt, in order to render the continuance of the session the more requisite.

The Scotch being such useful allies to the malecontent party in England, no wonder they were courted with the most unlimited complaisance and the most important services. The King, in his first speech, having called them *rebels*, observed, that he had given great offence to the parliament; and he was immediately obliged to soften, and even retract that expression. The Scotch commissioners, of whom the most considerable were the Earl of Rothes and Lord Loudon, found every advantage in conducting their treaty; and yet made no haste in bringing it to an issue. They were lodged in the city, and kept an intimate correspondence, as well with the magistrates, who were extremely disaffected, as with the popular leaders in both houses. St Antholine's church was assigned them for their devotions; and their chaplains, here, began openly to practice the presbyterian form of worship, which, except in foreign languages, had never hitherto been allowed any indulgence or toleration. So violent was the general propensity towards this new religion, that multitudes of all ranks crowded into the church. Those, who were so happy as to find access early in the morning, kept their places the whole day: Those, who were excluded, clung to the doors or windows, in hopes of catching, at least, some distant murmurs or broken phrases of the holy rhetoric. All the eloquence of parliament, now well refined from pedantry, animated with the

spirit of liberty, and employed in such important interests, was not attended to with such insatiable avidity, as were these lectures, delivered with ridiculous cant, and a provincial accent, full of barbarism and of ignorance.

The most effectual expedient for paying court to the zealous Scotch was to promote the presbyterian discipline and worship thro'out England; and to this innovation, the popular leaders among the commons, as well as their most devoted partizans, were, of themselves, sufficiently inclined. The puritanical party, whose progress, tho' secret, had hitherto been gradual in the kingdom, taking advantage of the present disorders, began openly to profess their tenets, and to make furious attacks on the established religion. The prevalence of that sect in the parliament discovered itself, from the beginning, by insensible, but decisive symptoms. Marshall and Burgess, two puritanical clergymen, were chosen to preach before them, and entertained them with discourses seven hours in length. It being the custom of the house always to take the sacrament before they enter upon business, they ordered, as a requisite preliminary, that the communion-table should be removed from the east end of St Margaret's into the middle of the area. The name of the *spiritual lords* was commonly left out in acts of parliament; and the laws ran in name of the king, lords, and commons. The clerk of the upper house, in reading of bills, turned his back on the bench of bishops; nor was his insolence ever taken notice of. On a day appointed for a solemn fast and humiliation, the whole orders of temporal peers, contrary to former practice, in going to church, took place of the spiritual; and the Lord Spencer remarked, that the humiliation, that day, seemed confined alone to the prelates.

Every meeting of the commons produced some vehement harangue against the usurpations of the bishops, against the high commission, against the late convocation, against the new canons. So disgusted were all lovers of civil liberty at the slavish doctrines promoted of late by the clergy, that these invectives were received without control; and no distinction, at first, appeared betwixt such as desired only to

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repress the exorbitances of the hierarchy, and such as pretended totally to annihilate episcopal jurisdiction. Encouraged by these favorable appearances, petitions against the church were framed in different parts of the kingdom. The epithet of the ignorant and vicious priesthood was commonly applied to all churchmen, addicted to the established discipline and worship; tho' the episcopal clergy in England, during that age, seem to have been, as they are at present, sufficiently learned and exemplary. To the committee of religion an address against episcopacy was presented by twelve clergymen, and pretended to be signed by many hundreds of the puritanical persuasion. But what made most noise was the city petition for a total alteration of church government; a petition, to which 15,000 subscriptions were annexed, and which was presented by Alderman Pennington, the city-member. 'Tis remarkable, that, among the many ecclesiastical abuses, there complained of, an allowance, given by the licensers of books, to publish a translation of Ovid's Art of Love, is not forgot by these rustic censors.

Notwithstanding the favorable disposition of the people, the leaders in the house resolved to proceed with caution. They introduced a bill for prohibiting all clergymen the exercise of any civil office. As a consequence, the bishops were deprived of their seats in the house of peers; a measure not unacceptable to the zealous friends of liberty, who observed, with regret, the devoted attachment of that order to the will of the monarch. But when this bill was presented to the peers, it was rejected by a great majority: The first check which the commons had received in their popular career, and a prognostic of what they might afterwards expect from the upper house, whose inclinations and interest could never be totally separated from the throne. But to show how little they were discouraged, the puritans immediately brought in another bill for the total abolition of episcopacy; tho' they thought proper to let that bill sleep at present, in expectation of a more favorable opportunity for reviving it.

Among other acts of regal, executive power, which the

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commons were every day assuming, they issued orders for the demolishing all images, altars, crucifixes. The zealous Sir Robert Harley, to whom the execution of these orders was committed, removed all crosses even out of streets and markets; and from his abhorrence to that superstitious figure, would not any where allow two pieces of wood or stone to lie over each other at right angles.

The bishop of Ely and other clergymen were attacked on account of innovations. Cozens, who had long been obnoxious, was exposed to new censures. This person, who was dean of Peterborow, was extremely zealous for ecclesiastical ceremonies: And so far from permitting the communicants to break the sacramental bread with their fingers; a privilege on which the puritans very strenuously insisted; he would not so much as allow it to be cut with an ordinary household instrument. A consecrated knife must perform that sacred office, and must never afterwards be profaned by any vulgar service.

Cozens too was accused of having said, *The king has no more authority in ecclesiastical matters, than the boy who rubs my horse's heels.* The expression was violent: But 'tis certain, that all those high churchmen, who were so industrious in bringing the laity's necks under the King's feet, were extremely fond of their own privileges and independency, and were desirous of exempting the mitre from all subjection to the crown.

A committee was erected by the commons as a court of inquisition upon the clergy, and was commonly denominated the committee of *scandalous ministers*. The politicians among the commons were apprized of the great importance of the pulpit for guiding the people; the bigots were enraged against the prelatical clergy; and both of them knew, that no established government could be overthrown by observing strictly the principles of justice, equity, or clemency. The proceedings, therefore, of this famous committee, which continued for several years, were, to the last degree, cruel and arbitrary, and made dreadful havoc both on the church and the universities. They began with haras-

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sing, imprisoning, and molesting the clergy; and ended with sequestring and ejecting them. In order to join contumely to cruelty, they gave the sufferers the epithet of *scandalous*, and endeavoured to render them as odious as they were miserable. The utmost vice, however, which they could reproach to a great part of them, were, bowing at the name of Jesus, placing the communion-table in the east, reading the King's order for sports on sunday, and other practices, which the established government, both in church and state, had strictly required of them.

It may be worth observing, that all the historians, who lived near that age, or what perhaps is more decisive, all authors, who have casually made mention of those public transactions, still represent the civil disorders and convulsions as proceeding from religious controversy, and consider the political disputes about power and liberty as intirely subordinate to the other. 'Tis true; had the King abstained from all invasion of national privileges, it is not probable, that the puritans ever could have acquired such authority as to overturn the whole constitution: Yet so entire was the subjection into which Charles was now fallen, that, if the wound had not been poisoned by the infusion of theological hatred, it must have admitted of a very easy remedy. Disuse of parliaments, imprisonment and prosecution of members, ship-money, and arbitrary and illegal administration; these were loudly, and not without reason, complained of: But the grievances, which tended chiefly to enflame the parliament and nation, especially the latter, were, the surplice, the rails placed about the altar, the bows exacted on approaching it, the liturgy, the breach of the sabbath, embroidered copes, lawn-sleeves, the use of the ring in marriage, and of the cross in baptism. On account of these, were both parties contented to throw the government into such violent convulsions; and to the disgrace of that age and of this island, it must be acknowledg'd, that the disorders in Scotland intirely, and those in England mostly, proceeded from so mean and contemptible an origin.

Some persons, partial to the leaders, who now defended

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public liberty, have ventured to put them in ballance with the most illustrious characters of antiquity; and mention the names of Pym, Hambden, Vane, as a just parallel to those of Cato, Brutus, Cassius. Profound capacity, indeed, undaunted courage, extensive enterprize; in these particulars perhaps the Roman do not much surpass the English patriots: But what a difference, when the discourse, conduct, conversation, and private as well as public behavior, of both are inspected? Compare only one circumstance, and consider its consequences. The leisure of these noble antients was totally employed in the study of Grecian eloquence and philosophy; in the cultivation of polite letters and civilized society: The whole discourse and language of the moderns were polluted with mysterious jargon, and full of the lowest and most vulgar hypocrisy.

The laws, as they stood at present, protected the church; but they exposed the catholics to the utmost rage of the puritans; and these unhappy religionists, so obnoxious to the prevailing sect, could not hope to remain long unmolested. The voluntary contribution, which they had made, in order to assist the King in his war against the Scotch covenanters, was inquired into, and represented as the greatest enormity. By an address from the commons, all officers of that religion were removed from the army, and application was made to the King for seizing two thirds of recusants' lands; a proportion to which, by law, he was intitled, but which he had always allowed them to possess upon very easy compositions. The severe and bloody laws against priests were insisted on: And one Goodman, a jesuit, who was found in prison, was condemned to a capital punishment. Charles, however, suitable to his usual principles, scrupled to sign the warrant for his execution; and the commons expressed great resentment on that occasion. There remains a very singular petition of Goodman, begging to be hanged, rather than remain a source of contention betwixt the King and his people. He escaped with his life; but it seems more probable, that he was overlooked, amid affairs of greater consequence, than that such unrelent-

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ing hatred would be softened by any consideration of his courage and generosity.

For some years, Con, a Scotchman, afterwards, Rofetti, an Italian, had openly resided at London, and frequented the court, as vested with a commission from the Pope. The Queen's zeal, and her authority with her husband, had been the cause of this imprudence, so offensive to the nation. But the spirit of bigotry now rose too high to permit any longer such indulgences.

Hayward, a justice of peace, having been wounded, when employed in the exercise of his office, by one James, a catholic madman, this enormity was ascribed to the popery, not to the frenzy, of the latter; and great alarms seized the nation and parliament. An universal conspiracy of the papists was supposed to have taken place; and every man, for some days, imagined, that he had a sword at his throat. Tho' some persons of family and distinction were still attached to the catholic superstition; 'tis certain, that the numbers of that sect did not compose the fortieth part of the nation: And the frequent panics, to which men, during this period, were so subject, on account of the catholics, were less the effects of fear, than of extreme rage and aversion, entertained against them.

The Queen Mother of France, having been forced into banishment by some court-intrigues, had retired into England; and expected shelter, amid her present distresses, in the dominions of her daughter and son-in-law. But, tho' she behaved in the most inoffensive manner, she was insulted by the populace on account of her religion; and even worse treatment was threatened her. The Earl of Holland, Lord lieutenant of Middlesex, had ordered a hundred musqueteers to guard her; but finding, that they had imbibed the same prejudices with the rest of their countrymen, and were very unwillingly employed in such a service, he laid the case before the house of peers: For the King's authority was intirely annihilated. He represented the indignity of the action, that so great a Princess, mother to the King of France, and to the Queens of Spain and England,

should be affronted by the base multitude. He observed the indelible reproach, which would fall upon the nation, if that unfortunate Queen should suffer any violence from the misguided zeal of the people. He urged the sacred rights of hospitality, due to every one, much more to a person in distress, of so high a rank, with whom the nation was so nearly connected. The peers thought proper to communicate the matter to the commons, whose authority over the people was absolute. The commons agreed to the necessity of protecting the Queen Mother; but at the same time desired, that she might be moved to depart the kingdom: ‘For the quieting those jealousies in the hearts of his Majesty’s well-affected subjects, occasioned by some ill-instruments about that Queen’s person, by the flowing of priests and papists to her house, and by the use and practice of the idolatry of the mass and exercise of other superstitious services of the Romish church, to the great scandal of true religion.’

Charles, in the former part of his reign, had endeavored to overcome the intractable and encroaching spirit of the commons, by an obstinate perseverance in his own measures, by a stately dignity of behavior, and by maintaining, at their utmost height, and even stretching beyond former precedent, the rights of his prerogative. Finding by experience how unsuccessful those measures had proved, and observing the low condition, to which he was now reduced, he resolved to alter his whole conduct, and endeavour to regain the confidence of his people, by pliancy, by concessions, and by a total conformity to their inclinations and prejudices. He considered not, that the true rule of government, in so difficult a situation, as that, in which, from the beginning of his reign, he was placed, consisted, neither in stedfastness nor in facility, but in such a judicious mixture of both, as would exactly suit the present circumstances of the nation, and the particular pretensions of his opponents. And, it may safely be averred, that this new extreme, into which the King, for want of proper council and support, was fallen, became equally dangerous to the constitution,

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and pernicious to public peace, as the other, in which he had, so long and so unfortunately, persevered.

The pretensions with regard to tonnage and poundage were revived, and with certain assurance of success, by the commons. The levying these duties, as formerly, without consent of parliament, and even increasing them at pleasure, was such an incongruity in a free constitution, where the people, by their fundamental privileges, cannot be taxed but by their own consent, as could no longer be endured by these jealous patrons of liberty. In the preamble, therefore, to the bill, where the commons granted these duties to the King, they took care, in the strongest and most positive terms, to assert their own right of bestowing this gift, and to divest the crown of all independent title of assuming it. And that they might increase, or rather finally fix, the intire dependance and subjection of the King, they voted these duties only for two months; and afterwards, from time to time, renewed their grant for very short periods.<sup>5</sup> Charles, in order to show, that he entertained no intention ever again to separate himself from his parliament, passed this important bill, without any scruple or hesitation.

With regard to the bill for triennial parliaments, he made a little difficulty. By an old statute, during the reign of Edward III it had been enacted, that parliaments should be held once every year, or more frequently, if necessary: But as no provision had been made in case of failure, and no precise method pointed out for execution; this statute had been considered merely as a general declaration, and was dispensed with at pleasure. The defect was supplied by those vigilant patriots, who now assumed the reins of government. It was enacted, that if the chancellor, who was first bound under severe penalties, fail to issue out writs by the third of September in every third year; any twelve or more

5. It was an instruction given by the house to the committee, which framed one of these bills, to take care, that the rates upon the home-commodities may be as light as possible; and upon foreign commodities as heavy as trade will bear: A proof, that the nature of commerce began now to be understood. Journ. 1. June 1641.

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of the peers shall be empowered to exert this authority: In default of the peers, the sheriffs, mayors, bayliffs, &c. shall summon the voters: And in their default, the voters themselves shall meet and proceed to the election of members, in the same manner as if writs had been regularly issued from the crown. Nor could the parliament, after it was assembled, be adjourned, prorogued, or dissolved, without their own consent, during the space of fifty days. By this bill, some of the noblest and most valuable prerogatives of the crown were retrenched; but at the same time, nothing could be more requisite than such a statute, for compleating a regular plan of law and liberty. A great reluctance to assemble parliaments must be expected in the King; where these assemblies, as of late, establish it as a maxim to carry their scrutiny into every circumstance of government. During long intermissions of parliament, grievances and abuses, suitable to recent experience, would naturally creep in; and it would even become necessary for the King and council to exert a great discretionary authority, and, by acts of state, supply, in every emergence, the legislative power, whose meeting was so uncertain and precarious. Charles, finding, that nothing less would satisfy his parliament and people, at last gave his assent to this bill, which produced so great an innovation in the constitution. Solemn thanks were presented him by both houses. Great rejoicings were expressed both in the city and thro'out the nation. And mighty processions were, every where, made of gratitude and mutual returns of supply and confidence. This concession of the King, it must be owned, was not intirely voluntary: It was of a nature too important to be voluntary. The sole inference, which his partizans were intitled to draw from the submissions, so frankly made to present necessity, was, that he had certainly adopted a new plan of government, and, for the future, was resolved, by every indulgence, to acquire the confidence and affections of his people.

Charles thought, that what concessions were made to the public were of little consequence, if no gratifications were bestowed on the individuals, who had acquired the direction

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of public councils and determinations. A change of ministers, as well as of measures, was, therefore, resolved on. In one day were sworn privy counsellors, the Earls of Hertford, Bedford, Essex, Bristol; the Lords Say, Saville, Kimbolton: Within a few days after, was admitted the Earl of Warwic. All these Noblemen were of the popular party; and some of them proved afterwards, when matters were pushed to extremity by the commons, the greatest supports of monarchy.

Juxon, bishop of London, who had never desired the treasurer's staff, now earnestly sollicited for leave to resign it, and retire to the care of that turbulent diocese, which was committed to him. The King gave his assent; and it is remarkable, that, during all the severe inquisitions, carried on against the conduct of ministers and prelates, the mild and prudent virtues of this man, who bore both these invidious characters, remained unmolested. It was intended, that Bedford, a popular man, of great authority, as well as wisdom and moderation, should succeed Juxon: But that Nobleman, very unfortunately both for King and people, died about this very time. By some promotions, place was made for St John, who was created sollicitor-general. Hollis was to be made secretary of state, in place of Windebank, who had fled, Pym, chancellor of the exchequer, in place of Lord Cottington, who had resigned: Lord Say, master of the wards, in place of the same Nobleman: The Earl of Essex, governor; and Hambden, tutor, to the Prince.

What retarded the execution of these projected changes, was the difficulty of satisfying all those, who, from their activity and authority in parliament, had pretensions for offices, and who had it still in their power to embarrass and distress the public measures. Their associates too in popularity, whom the King intended to distinguish by his favors, were unwilling to suffer the reproach of having driven a separate bargain, and of sacrificing, to their own ambitious views, the cause of the nation. And as they were sensible, that they must owe their preferment entirely to their weight and consideration in parliament, they were, most of them, resolved still to adhere to that assembly, and both to pro-

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mote its authority, and preserve their own credit in it. On all occasions, they had no other advice to give the King, than to allow himself to be directed by his great council; or in other words, to resign himself passively to their guidance and government. And Charles found, that, instead of acquiring friends, by the honors and offices which he should bestow, he would only arm his enemies with more power to hurt him.

The end, on which the King was most intent in changing ministers, was to save the life of the Earl of Strafford, and to mollify, by these indulgences, the rage of his most furious prosecutors. But so high was that Nobleman's reputation for experience and capacity, that all the new counsellors and intended ministers made account, if he escaped their vengeance, of his return into favor and authority; and regarded his death as the only security, which they could have, both for the establishment of their present power, and for success in their farther enterprizes. His impeachment, therefore, was pushed with the utmost vigor; and after long and solemn preparations, was brought to a final issue.

Immediately after Strafford was sequestered from parliament, and confined in the tower, a committee of thirteen were chosen by the lower house, and entrusted with the office of preparing a charge against him. Joined to a small committee of lords, these were vested with authority to examine all witnesses, call for every paper, and use any means of scrutiny, with regard to any part of the Earl's behavior and conduct. After so general and unbounded an inquisition, exercised by such powerful and implacable enemies; a man must have been very cautious or very innocent, not to afford, during the whole course of his life, some matter of accusation against him.

This committee, by direction from the houses, took an oath of secrecy; a practice very unusual, and what gave them the appearance of conspirators, more than ministers of justice. But the intention of this strictness, was to render it more difficult for the Earl to elude their search, or prepare for his justification.

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To the King, application was made, that he would allow this committee to examine privy counsellors with regard to opinions delivered at the board. A concession, which Charles unwarily made, and which thenceforth banished all mutual confidence, from the deliberations of council; where every man is supposed to have entire freedom, without fear of future punishment and inquiry, of proposing any expedient, questioning any opinion, or supporting any argument.

Sir George Ratcliffe, the Earl's intimate friend and confidant, was accused of high treason, sent for from Ireland, and committed to close custody. As no charge ever appeared or was prosecuted against him, it is impossible to give a more charitable interpretation to this measure, than that the commons thereby intended to deprive Strafford, in his present distress, of the assistance of his best friend, who was not enabled to justify the innocence of his conduct and behavior.

When intelligence arrived in Ireland of the plans laid for Strafford's ruin, the Irish house of commons, tho' they had very lately bestowed most ample praises on his administration, entered into all violent councils against him, and prepared a representation of the miserable state, into which, by his misconduct, they supposed the kingdom to be fallen. They sent over a committee into England to assist in the prosecution of their unfortunate governor; and by intimations from this committee, who entered into close confederacy with the popular leaders in England, was every measure of the Irish parliament governed and directed. Impeachments, which were never prosecuted, were carried up against Sir Richard Bolton, the chancellor, Sir Gerard Louther, chief justice, and Bramhall, bishop of Derry. This step, which was an exact counter-part to the proceedings in England, served also the same purposes: It deprived the King of the ministers, whom he most trusted; it discouraged and terrified all the other ministers; and it prevented those persons, who were best acquainted with Strafford's councils, from giving evidence in his favor before the English parliament.

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The bishops, being forbid by the canons to assist in any trial for life, and being unwilling, by any opposition, to irritate the commons, who were already much prejudiced against them, thought proper, of themselves, to withdraw. The commons also voted, that the new created peers ought to have no voice in this trial; because the accusation being agreed to, while they were commoners, their consent to it was implied with that of all the commons of England. Notwithstanding this decision, which was meant only to deprive Strafford of so many friends, the Lord Seymour, and some others still continued to keep their seat; nor was their right to it any farther questioned.

To bestow a greater solemnity on this important trial, scaffolds were erected in Westminster-hall; where both houses sat, the one as accusers, the other as judges. Beside the chair of state, a close gallery was prepared for the King and Queen, who attended during the whole trial.

An accusation, carried on by the united effort of three kingdoms, against one man, unprotected by power, unassisted by council, discountenanced by authority, was likely to prove a very unequal contest: Yet such was the capacity, genius, presence of mind, displayed by this magnanimous statesman, that, while argument and reason and law had any place, he obtained an undisputed victory. And he perished at last, overwhelmed and still unsubdued, by the undisguised violence of his fierce and unrelenting antagonists.

The articles of impeachment against Strafford are twenty eight in number; and regard his conduct, as president of the council of Yorke, as deputy or lieutenant of Ireland, as counsellor or commander in England. But tho' four months were employed by the managers in framing the accusation, and all Strafford's answers were extemporary; it appears from comparison, not only that he was free from the crime of treason, of which there is not the least appearance, but that his conduct, making allowance for human infirmities, exposed to such severe scrutiny, was innocent, and even laudable.

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The powers of the northern council, while he was president, had been extended, by the King's instructions, beyond what formerly had been practised: But that court being, at first, instituted by a stretch of royal prerogative, it had been usual for the prince to vary his instructions; and the largest authority, committed to it, was altogether as legal as the most moderate and most limited. Nor was it reasonable to conclude, that Strafford had used any art to procure those extensive powers; since he never once sat as president, nor exercised one act of jurisdiction, after he was invested with the authority, so much complained of.

In the government of Ireland, his administration had been equally promotive of his master's interest, and that of the subjects, committed to his care. A large debt he had payed off: A considerable sum he had left in the exchequer: The revenues, which befor never answered the charges of government, were now raised to be equal to them: A small standing army, held in no order, was augmented and was governed by the most exact discipline: And a great force was there raised and paid, for the support of the King's authority against the Scotch covenanters.

Industry, and all the arts of peace, were introduced among that savage people: The shipping of the kingdom augmented a hundred-fold: The customs tripled upon the same rates: The exports double in value to the imports: Manufactures, particularly that of linnen, introduced and promoted: Agriculture, by means of the English and Scotch plantations, gradually advancing: The protestant religion encouraged, without the persecution or discontent of the catholics.

The springs of authority he had enforced without overstraining them. Discretionary acts of jurisdiction, indeed, he had often exerted, by holding courtsmartial, billeting soldiers, deciding causes upon paper-petitions before the council, issuing proclamations, and punishing their infraction. But discretionary authority, during that age, was usually exercised even in England. In Ireland, it was still more requisite, among a wild nation, scarce well subdued,

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averse to the religion and manners of their conquerors, ready, on all occasions, to relapse into rebellion and disorder. While the managers of the commons demanded, every moment, that the deputy's conduct should be examined by the line of rigid law and severe principles; he appealed still to the practice of all former deputies, and to the uncontrollable necessity of his situation.

So great was his art of managing elections, and ballancing parties, that he had engaged the Irish parliament to vote whatever was requisite, both for the payment of former debts, and for support of the new levied army; nor had he ever been reduced to the illegal expedients, practised in England, for the supply of public necessities. No imputation of rapacity could justly lie against his administration. Some instances of imperious expressions and even actions may be met with. The case of Lord Mountnorris, of all those collected with so much industry, is the most flagrant and the least excusable.

It had been reported at the table of the Lord chancellor, Loftus, that one of the deputy's attendants, a relation of Mountnorris, in moving a stool, had sorely hurt his master's foot, who was at that time afflicted with the gout. *Perhaps, said Mountnorris, who was present at table, it was done in revenge of that public affront, which my Lord deputy formerly put upon me: BUT I HAVE A BROTHER, WHO WOULD NOT HAVE TAKEN SUCH A REVENGE.* This casual, and seemingly innocent, at least very ambiguous, expression was reported to Strafford: who, on pretence that Mountnorris was an officer, ordered him to be tried by a court-martial for mutiny and sedition against his general. The court, which consisted of the chief officers of the army, found the crime to be capital, and condemned that Nobleman to lose his head.

In vain did Strafford plead in his own defence against this article of impeachment, That the sentence against Mountnorris was the deed, and that too unanimous, of the court, not the act of the deputy; that he spoke not to a member of the court, nor voted in the cause, but sat uncovered as a party; and then immediately withdrew, to leave

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them to their freedom; that sensible of the atrociousness of the sentence, he procured his Majesty's fee pardon to Mountnorris; that he did not even keep that Nobleman a moment in suspence with regard to his fate, but instantly told him, that he himself would sooner part with his right hand than execute such a sentence, nor was his lordship's life in any manner of danger; and that upon the whole, the only hardship, which Mountnorris suffered, was imprisonment during two days, after which his liberty was restored to him. In vain did Strafford's friends add, as a further apology, that Mountnorris was a man of an infamous character, who payed court, by the lowest adulation, to all deputies, while present; and blackened their character, by the vilest calumnies, when recalled: And that Strafford, expecting like treatment, had used this expedient for no other purpose than to subdue the petulant spirit of the man. These excuses alleviate the guilt; but there still remains enough to prove, that the mind of the deputy, tho' great and firm, had been not a little debauched by the riot of absolute power, and uncontroled authority.

When Strafford was called over into England, he found every thing falling to such confusion, by the open rebellion of the Scotch and the secret discontents of the English, that, if he had counselled or executed any violent measure, he might perhaps have been able to apologize for his conduct, from the great law of necessity, which admits not, while extreme, of any scruple, ceremony, or delay. But in fact, no illegal advice or action was proved against him; and the whole amount of his guilt, during this period, were some peevish, or at most imperious expressions, which, amid such desperate extremities, and during a bad state of health, had unhappily fallen from him.

If Strafford's apology was, in the main, so satisfactory, when he pleaded to each particular article of the charge, his victory was still more decisive, when he brought the whole together, and repelled the imputation of high treason; the crime which the commons would infer from the full view of his conduct and behavior. Of all species of guilt, the law of

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England had, with the most anxious care, defined that of treason; because on that side it was found most requisite to protect the subject against the violence of the king and of his ministers. By the famous statute of Edward III all the kinds of treason are enumerated, and every other crime, beside such as are there expressly mentioned, is carefully excluded from that denomination. But with regard to this guilt, *An endeavor to subvert the fundamental laws*, the statute of treasons is totally silent: And arbitrarily to introduce it into the fatal catalogue, is itself a subversion of all law; and under pretext of defending liberty, reverses a statute the best calculated for protecting liberty, which had ever been enacted by an English parliament.

As this species of treason, discovered by the commons, is intirely new and unknown to the laws; so is the species of proof, by which they pretend to fix that guilt upon the prisoner. They have invented a kind of *accumulative* or *constructive* evidence, by which many actions, either totally innocent in themselves, or criminal in a much inferior degree, shall, when united, mount up into treason, and subject the person to the highest penalties inflicted by the law. A hasty and unguarded word, a rash and passionate action, assisted by the malevolent fancy of the accuser, and tortured by precarious constructions, is transmuted into the deepest guilt; and the lives and fortunes of the whole nation, no longer protected by justice, are subjected to arbitrary will and pleasure.

'Where has this species of guilt lain so long concealed,' said Strafford in conclusion: Where has this fire been so long buried, during so many centuries, that no smoke should appear, till it burst out at once, to consume me and my children? Better it were to live under no law at all, and, by the maxims of cautious prudence, to conform ourselves, the best we can, to the arbitrary will of a master; than fancy we have a law on which we can rely, and find, at last, that this law shall inflict a punishment precedent to the promulgation, and try us by maxims unheard of, till the very moment of the prosecution. If I sail on the Thames, and

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split my vessel on an anchor; in case there be no buoy to give warning, the party shall pay me damages: But, if the anchor be marked out, then is the striking on it at my own peril. Where is the mark set upon this crime? Where is the token by which I should discover it? It has lain concealed under water; and no human prudence, no human innocence could save me from the destruction, with which I am here threatened.

'It is now full two hundred and forty years since treasons were defined; and so long has it been, since any man was touched to this extent, upon this crime, before myself. We have lived, my lords, happily to ourselves at home; we have lived gloriously abroad, to the world: Let us be content with what our fathers have left us: Let not our ambition carry us to be more learned than they were, in these killing and destructive arts. Great wisdom it will be in your lordships, and just providence, for yourselves, for your posterities, for the whole kingdom, to cast from you, into the fire, these bloody and mysterious volumes of arbitrary and constructive treasons, as the primitive christians did their books of curious arts, and betake yourselves to the plain letter of the statute, which tells you where the crime is, and points out to you the path, by which you may avoid it!

'Let us not, to our own destruction, awake those sleeping lions, by rattling up a company of old records, which have lain, for so many ages, by the wall, forgotten and neglected. To all my afflictions, add not this, my lords, the most severe of any; that I, for my other sins, not for my treasons, be the means of introducing a precedent, so pernicious to the laws and liberties of my native country.

'However these gentlemen at the bar say, they speak for the commonwealth; and they believe so: Yet, under favor, in this particular, it is I who speak for the commonwealth. Precedents, like those endeavored to be established against me, must draw along such inconveniences and miseries, that, in a few years, the kingdom will be in the condition, expressed in a statute of Henry IV; and no man shall know by what rule to govern his words and actions.

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'Impose not, my lords, difficulties insurmountable upon ministers of state, nor disable them from serving with cheerfulness their king and country. If you examine them, and under such severe penalties, by every grain, by every little weight; the scrutiny will be intolerable. The public affairs of the kingdom must be left waste; and no wise man, who has any honor or fortune to lose, will ever engage himself in such dreadful, such unknown perils.

'My lords, I have now troubled your lordships a great deal longer than I should have done. Were it not for the interest of these pledges, which a saint in heaven left me, I should be loth.' – Here he pointed to his children, and his weeping stopped him. – 'What I forfeit for myself, it is nothing: But, I confess, that my indiscretion should forfeit for them, it wounds me very deeply. You will be pleased to pardon my infirmity: Something I should have said; but I see I shall not be able, and therefore I shall leave it.

'And now, my lords, I thank God, I have been, by his good blessing, sufficiently instructed in the extreme vanity of all temporary enjoyments, compared to the importance of our eternal duration. And so, my lords, even so, with all humility, and with all tranquillity of mind, I submit, clearly and freely, to your judgments: And whether that righteous doom shall be to life or to death, I shall repose myself, full of gratitude and confidence, in the arms of the great Author of my existence.'

*Certainly, says Whitlocke with his usual candor, never any man acted such a part, on such a theatre, with more wisdom, constancy, and eloquence, with greater reason, judgment and temper, and with a better grace in all his words and actions, than did this great and excellent person; and he moved the hearts of all his auditors, some few excepted, to remorse and pity.* It is remarkable, that the historian, who expresses himself in these terms, was himself chairman of that committee, which conducted the impeachment against this unfortunate statesman. The accusation and defence lasted for eighteen days. The managers divided the several articles among them, and attacked the

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prisoner with all the weight of authority, with all the vehemence of rhetoric, with all the accuracy of long preparation. Strafford was obliged to speak with deference and reserve towards his most inveterate enemies, the commons, the Scotch nation, the Irish parliament. He took only a very little time, on each article, to recollect himself: Yet he alone, without assistance, mixing modesty and humility with firmness and vigor, made such a defence, that the commons saw it impossible, by a legal prosecution, ever to obtain a sentence against him.

But the death of Strafford was too important a stroke of party to be left unattempted by any expedient, however extraordinary. Beside the great genius and authority of that minister, he had threatened some of the popular leaders with an impeachment; and, had he not been suddenly prevented by an accusation of the commons, he had, that very day, it was thought, charged Pym, Hambden, and others, with treason, for having invited the Scotch to invade England. A bill of attainder was therefore brought into the lower house immediately after finishing these pleadings; and preparatory to it, a new proof of the Earl's guilt was produced, in order to remove such scruples as might be entertained with regard to a method of proceeding, so unusual and irregular.

Sir Henry Vane, secretary, had taken down some notes of a debate in council, after the dissolution of the last parliament; and being at a distance, he had sent the keys of his cabinet, as was pretended, to his son, Sir Henry, in order to search for some papers, which were necessary for compleating a marriage-settlement. Young Vane, falling upon this paper of notes, esteemed the matter of the utmost consequence; and immediately communicated it to Pym, who now produced the paper before the house of commons. The question before the council was; *Offensive or defensive war with the Scotch*. The King proposes this difficulty, 'But how can I undertake offensive war if I have no more money?' The answer ascribed to Strafford was in these words. 'Borrow of the city a hundred thousand pounds:

Go on vigorously to levy ship-money. Your Majesty having tried the affections of your people, you are absolved and loose from all rules of government, and may do what power will admit. Your Majesty, having tried all ways, shall be acquitted before God and man. And you have an army in Ireland, which you may employ to reduce *this kingdom* to obedience: For I am confident the Scotch cannot hold out five months.' There followed some councils of Laud and Cottington, equally violent, with regard to the King's being absolved from all rules of government.

This paper, with all the circumstances of its discovery and communication, was pretended to be equivalent to two witnesses, and to be an unanswerable proof of those pernicious councils of Strafford, which tended to the subversion of the laws and constitution. But it was replied by Strafford and his friends, That old Vane was his most inveterate and declared enemy; and if the secretary himself, as was by far most probable, had willingly delivered to his son this paper of notes, to be communicated to Pym, this implied such a breach of oaths and of trust as rendered him totally unworthy of all credit. That the secretary's deposition was at first exceedingly dubious: Upon two examinations, he could not remember any such words: Even the third time, his testimony was not positive, but imported only, that Strafford had spoke such or such-like words: And words may be very like in sound, and differ much in sense; nor ought the lives of men to depend upon grammatical criticisms of any expressions, much less, of those delivered by the speaker without premeditation, and committed by the hearer, for any time, however short, to the uncertain record of memory. That, in the present case, changing *This kingdom* into *That kingdom*, a very slight alteration! the Earl's discourse could regard nothing but Scotland, and implies no advice unworthy of an English counsellor. That even retaining the expression, *This kingdom*, the words may fairly be understood of Scotland, which alone was the kingdom that the debate regarded, and which alone had thrown off allegiance, and could be reduced to obedience. That it could be proved,

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as well by the evidence of all the King's ministers, as by the known disposition of the forces, that the intention never was to land the Irish army in England, but in Scotland. That of six other counsellors present, Laud and Windebank could give no evidence; Northumberland, Hamilton, Cottington, and Juxon, could recollect no such expression; and the advice was too remarkable to be easily forgot. That it was no way probable such a desperate council would be openly delivered at the board, and before Northumberland, a person of that high rank, and whose attachments to the court were so much weaker than his attachments to the country. That tho' Northumberland, and he alone, had recollected some such expression, as that *Of being absolved from rules of government*; yet, in such desperate extremities as those, into which the King and kingdom were then fallen, a maxim of that nature, allowing it to be delivered by Strafford, may be defended, upon principles the most favorable to law and liberty. And that nothing could be more iniquous, than to extract an accusation of treason from an opinion, simply proposed at the council-table; where all freedom of debate ought to be permitted, and where it was not unusual for the members, in order to bring out the sentiments of others, to propose councils very remote from their own secret advice and judgment.

The evidence of Secretary Vane, tho' exposed to such unsurmountable objections, was the real cause of Strafford's unhappy fate; and made the bill of attainder pass the commons with no greater opposition than that of fifty-nine dissenting votes. But there remained two other branches of the legislature, the King and the lords, whose assent was requisite; and these, if left to their free judgment, it was easily foreseen, would reject the bill, without scruple or deliberation. To overcome this difficulty, the popular leaders employed expedients, for which they were partly beholden to their own industry, partly to the imprudence of their adversaries.

Next Sunday after the bill passed the commons, the puritanical pulpits rang with declamations concerning the

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necessity of executing justice upon great delinquents.<sup>6</sup> The populace took the alarm. About six thousand men, armed with swords and cudgels, flocked from the city, and surrounded the houses of parliament. The name of the fifty-nine commoners, who voted against the bill of attainder, were pasted up under the title of *Straffordians and betrayers of their country*. These were exposed to all the insults of the ungovernable multitude. When any of the lords passed, the loud cry of *Justice* against Strafford resounded in their ears: And such as were suspected of friendship to that obnoxious minister, were sure to meet with menaces, not unaccompanied with symptoms of the most desperate resolutions in the furious populace.

Complaints in the house of commons being made against these violences as the most flagrant breach of privilege, the ruling members, by their affected coolness and indifference, showed plainly, that the popular tumults were not disagreeable to them. But a new discovery, made about this time, served to throw every thing into still greater flame and combustion.

Some principal officers, Piercy, Jermyn, Oneale, Goring, Wilmot, Pollard, Ashburnham, partly attached to the court, partly disgusted with the parliament, had formed a plan of engaging into the King's service the English army, whom they observed to be displeased at some marks of preference given by the parliament to the Scotch. For this purpose, they entered into an association, took an oath of secrecy, and kept a close correspondence with some of the King's servants. The form of a petition to the King and parliament was concerted; and it was proposed to get this petition subscribed by the army. The petitioners there represent the great and unexampled concessions made by the King for the security of public peace and liberty; the endless demands of certain insatiable and turbulent spirits, whom nothing less will content than a total subversion of the antient constitution; the frequent tumults, which these factious malecontents had excited, and which endangered

6. Whitlocke.

the liberty of parliament. To prevent these mischiefs, the army offered to come up and guard that assembly. ‘So shall the nation,’ as they express themselves in the conclusion, ‘not only be vindicated from precedent innovations, but be secured from the future, which are threatened, and which are likely to produce more dangerous effects than the former’. The draught of this petition being conveyed to the King, he was prevailed with, from the most egregious imprudence, to countersign it himself, as a mark of his approbation. But as several difficulties occurred, the project was laid aside two months before any public discovery was made of it.

It was Goring, who betrayed the secret to the popular leaders. The alarm is easily imagined, which this intelligence conveyed. Petitions from the military to the civil power are always looked on as disguised, or rather undisguised commands; and are of a nature widely different from petitions, presented by any other rank of men. Pym opened the matter in the house. On the first intimation of a discovery, Piercy concealed himself, and Jermyn withdrew beyond seas. This farther confirmed the suspicion of a dangerous conspiracy. Goring delivered his evidence before the house. Piercy wrote a letter to his brother, Northumberland, confessing most of the particulars. Both their testimonies agree with regard to the oath of secrecy; and as this circumstance had been denied by Pollard, Ashburnham, and Wilmot, in all their examinations, it was regarded as a new proof of some desperate resolutions, which had been taken.

To convey the faster the terror and indignation at this plot, the commons voted, that a protestation should be signed by all the members. It was sent up to the lords, and signed by all of them, except Southampton and Robarts. Orders were given by the commons alone, without other authority, that it should be subscribed by the whole nation. The protestation was in itself very inoffensive and even insignificant, and contained nothing but general declarations, that the subscribers would defend their religion and liberties. But it

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tended to increase the popular panic, and intimated, what was more expressly declared in the preamble, that these blessings were now exposed to the utmost peril.

Alarms were every day given of new conspiracies: In Lancashire, great multitudes of papists were gathering together: Secret meetings were held by them in caves and under ground in Surrey: A plot they had entered into to blow up the river with gunpowder, in order to drown the city:<sup>7</sup> Provisions of arms were making beyond seas: Sometimes France, sometimes Denmark, was forming designs against the kingdom: And the populace, who are always terrified with present, and enraged with distant dangers, were still farther animated in their demands of justice against the unfortunate Strafford.

The King came to the house of lords: And tho' he marked his resolution, for which he offered them any security, never again to employ Strafford in any branch of public business; he professed himself totally unsatisfied with regard to the circumstances of treason, and on that account declared his difficulty, in giving assent to the bill of attainder. The commons took fire, and voted it a breach of privilege for the King to take notice of any bill, depending before the houses. Charles did not perceive, that his attachment to Strafford was the chief motive of the bill; and that, the greater proofs he gave of anxious concern for this minister, the more inevitable did he render his destruction.

About eighty peers had constantly attended Strafford's trial; but such apprehensions were entertained on account of the popular tumults, that only forty-five were present when the bill of attainder was brought into the house. Yet of these, nineteen had the courage to vote against it: A certain proof, that, if intire freedom had been allowed, the bill had been rejected by a great majority.

In carrying up the bill to the lords, St John, the solicitor-general, advanced two topics, well suited to the fury of the times; that, tho' the testimony against Strafford were not clear, yet, in this way of bill, private satisfaction to each

7. Sir Edw. Walker, p. 349.

man's conscience was sufficient, even should no evidence at all be produced; and that the Earl had no title to plead law, because he had broke the law. It is true, added he, we give law to hares and deer; for they are beasts of chace: But, it was never accounted either cruel or unfair, to destroy foxes or wolves, where-ever they can be found; for they are beasts of prey.

After popular violence had prevailed over the lords, the same batteries were next applied to force the King's assent. The populace flocked about Whitehall, and accompanied their cries for justice with the loudest clamors and most open menaces. Rumors of conspiracies against the parliament were anew scattered: Invasions and insurrections talked of: And the whole nation was raised into such a ferment, as threatened some great and imminent convulsion. On whichever side the King cast his eyes, he saw no resource or security. All his servants, consulting their own safety, rather than their master's honor, declined interposing with their advice betwixt him and his parliament. The Queen, terrified with the appearance of so mighty a danger, and bearing formerly no good-will to Strafford, was in tears, and pressed him to satisfy his people, in this demand, which it was hoped, would finally content them. Juxon alone, whose courage was not inferior to his other virtues, ventured to advise him, if, in his conscience, he did not approve of the bill, by no means to assent to it.

Strafford, hearing of the King's irresolution and anxiety, took a very extraordinary step, and wrote him a letter, in which he intreated him, for the sake of public peace, to put an end to his unfortunate, however innocent, life, and quiet the tumultuous people by granting them that request, for which they were so importunate. 'In this,' added he, 'my consent will more acquit you to God than all the world can do besides. To a willing man there is no injury. And as, by God's grace I forgive all the world with a calmness and meekness, of infinite contentment to my dislodging soul: So Sir to you, I can resign the life of this world with all imaginable cheerfulness, in the just acknowledgement of

your exceeding favors'. Perhaps, Strafford hoped, that this unusual instance of generosity would engage the King still more strenuously to protect him: Perhaps, he gave his life for lost; and finding himself in the hands of his enemies, and observing, that Balfour, the lieutenant of the tower, was intirely devoted to the popular party; he absolutely despaired of ever escaping the multiplied dangers, with which he was every where invironed. We might ascribe this step to a noble effort of disinterestedness, not unworthy the great mind of Strafford; if the measure, which he advised, had not been, in the event, as pernicious to his master, as it was immediately fatal to himself.<sup>8</sup>

After the most violent anxiety and doubt, Charles, at last, granted a commission to four noblemen to give the royal assent, in his name, to the bill: Flattering himself, probably, in the extremity of distress, that, as neither his will consented to the deed, nor was his hand immediately affixed to it, he was the more free from all the guilt, which attended it. These commissioners he empowered, at the same time, to give assent to the bill, which rendered the parliament perpetual.

The commons, from policy, more than from necessity, had embraced the expedient of paying the two armies by

8. Mr Carte, in his life of the Duke of Ormond, has given us some evidence to prove, that this letter was intirely a forgery of the popular leaders, in order to induce the King to sacrifice Strafford. He tells us, that Strafford said so to his son, the night before his execution. But there are some reasons, why I adhere to the common way of telling this story. 1. The account of the forgery came thro' several hands, and from men of characters not fully known to the public: A circumstance which weakens every evidence. 'Tis a hearsay of a hearsay. 2. It seems impossible, but young Lord Strafford must inform the King, who would not fail to trace the forgery, and expose his enemies to their merited infamy. 3. 'Tis not to be conceived but Clarendon and Whitlocke, not to mention others, must have heard of the matter. 4. Sir George Ratcliffe in his life of Strafford, tells the story in the same way. Would he also, who was Strafford's intimate friend, never have heard of the forgery? 'Tis remarkable, that this life is dedicated or addressed to young Strafford. Would not he have put Sir George right in so material and interesting a fact?

money, which they borrowed from the city, and which they repaid afterwards by taxes, levied upon the people. Difficulties, either of themselves or by suggestion, began to be started with regard to a farther loan, which was demanded. We make no scruple of trusting the parliament, said the citizens, were we sure, that the parliament was to continue till our repayment: But, in the present precarious situation, what security can be given us for our money? In order to obviate this objection, a bill was suddenly brought into the house, and passed with great unanimity and rapidity, that the parliament should not be dissolved, prorogued, nor adjourned, without their own consent. It was hurried in like manner thro' the house of peers; and was instantly carried to the King for his assent. Charles, in the agony of grief, shame and remorse, for Strafford's doom, perceived not, that this other bill was still of more fatal consequence to his authority; and rendered the power of his enemies perpetual, as it was already uncontrollable. In comparison of the bill of attainder, by which he esteemed himself an accomplice in his friend's murder, this concession made no figure in his eyes:<sup>9</sup> A circumstances, which, if it lessens our idea of his resolution or penetration, serves to prove the integrity of his heart and the goodness of his disposition. It is indeed certain, that strong compunction for his consent to Strafford's execution attended this unfortunate Prince during all the remainder of his life; and even at his own fatal death, the memory of this guilt, with great sorrow and remorse, recurred upon him. All men were so sensible of the extreme

9. What made this bill appear of less consequence was, that the parliament voted tonnage and poundage for no longer a period than two months: And as that branch was more than half of the revenue, and the government could not possibly subsist without it; it seemed indirectly in the power of the parliament to continue themselves as long as they pleased. This indeed was true in the ordinary administration of government: But on the approaches towards a civil war, which was not then foreseen, it had been of great consequence to the King to have reserved the right of dissolution, and to have suffered any other extremity, rather than allow the continuance of the parliament.

violence, which was done him, that he suffered the less, both in character and interest, from this unhappy measure; and, tho' he abandoned his best friend, yet was he still able to preserve, in some degree, the attachment of all his adherents.

Secretary Carleton was sent by the King to inform Strafford of the final resolution, which necessity had extorted from him. The Earl seemed surprised, and starting up, exclaimed, in the words of the scripture, *Put not your trust in princes nor in the sons of men: For in them there is no salvation.* His courage, however, soon recollected itself; and he prepared for suffering the fatal sentence. Three days of interval were only allowed him. The King, who made a new effort in his behalf, and sent, by the hands of the young Prince, a letter addressed to the peers, in which he entreated them to confer with the commons about a mitigation of Strafford's sentence, and begged at least for some delay, was refused in both requests.

Strafford, in passing from his apartment to Towerhill, where the scaffold was erected, stopped under Laud's windows, with whom he had long lived in intimate friendship; and entreated the assistance of his prayers, in those awful moment, which were approaching: The aged primate dissolved in tears; and having pronounced, with a broken voice, a tender blessing on his departing friend, sunk into the arms of his attendants. Strafford, still superior to his fate, marched on with an elated countenance, and with an air even of greater dignity, than what usually attended him. He wanted that consolation, which commonly supports those, who perish by the stroke of injustice and oppression: He was not buoyed up by glory, nor by the affectionate compassion of the spectators: Yet his mind, erect and undaunted, found resources within itself, and maintained its unbroken resolution, against the terrors of death, and the triumphant exultations of his misguided enemies. His discourse on the scaffold was full of decency and courage. 'He feared,' he said, 'that the omen was bad for the intended reformation of the state, that it commenced with the shed-

ding of innocent blood.' Having bid a last adieu to his brother and friends, who attended him, and having sent a blessing to his nearer relations, who were absent; 'And now,' said he, 'I have nigh done! One stroke will make my wife a widow, my dear children fatherless, deprive my poor servants of their indulgent master, and separate me from my affectionate brother and all my friends! But let God be to you and them all in all!' Going to disrobe and prepare himself for the block, 'I thank God,' said he, 'that I am no way afraid of death, nor am daunted with any terrors; but do as chearfully lay down my head at this time, as ever I did when going to repose!' With one blow was a period put to his life by the executioner.

Thus perished, in the 49th year of his age, the famous Earl of Strafford, one of the most eminent personages, who has appeared in England. Tho' his death was loudly demanded as a satisfaction to justice, and an atonement for the many violations of the constitution; it may safely be affirmed, that the sentence, by which he fell, was an enormity, greater than the worst of those, which his implacable enemies prosecuted with so much cruel industry. The people, in their rage, had totally mistaken the proper object of their resentment. All the necessities, or, more properly speaking, the difficulties, by which the King had been induced to use illegal expedients for raising money, were the result of measures, precedent to Strafford's favor; and if they arose from ill conduct, he, at least, was entirely innocent. Even those illegal expedients themselves, which occasioned the complaint, that the constitution was subverted, had been, all of them, conducted, so far as appeared, without his counsel or assistance. And whatever his private advice might be,<sup>10</sup> this salutary maxim he failed not, often and publicly, to inculcate in the King's preference, that, if any inevitable necessity ever obliged the sovereign to violate the laws, this licence ought to be practised with extreme

10. That Strafford was secretly no enemy to arbitrary councils, appears from some of his letters and dispatches, particularly vol. ii. p. 60.

reserve, and, as soon as possible, a just atonement be made to the constitution, for any injury, which it might sustain from such dangerous precedents. The first parliament after the restoration reversed the bill of attainder; and even a few weeks after Strafford's execution, this very parliament remitted to his children the more severe consequences of his sentence: As if conscious of the violence, with which the affair had been conducted.

In vain did Charles expect, as a return for so many instances of unbounded compliance, that the parliament would at last show him some indulgence, and cordially fall into that unanimity, to which, at the expence of his own power, and of his friend's life, he so earnestly courted them. All his concessions were poisoned by their suspicion of his insincerity; and the project of engaging the army against them, served with many as a confirmation of this jealousy. It was natural for the King to seek some resource, while all the world seemed to desert him, or combine against him; and this probably was the utmost of that embryo-scheme, which was formed with regard to the army. But the popular leaders still insisted, that a desperate plot was laid to bring up immediately the forces, and offer violence to the parliament: A design, of which Piercy's evidence acquits the King, and which the near neighborhood of the Scotch army seems to render absolutely impracticable. By means, however, of these suspicions, was the same implacable spirit still kept up; and the commons, without giving the King any satisfaction in the settlement of his revenue, proceeded to carry their inroads, with great vigor, into his now defenceless prerogative.

The two ruling passions of this parliament, were zeal for liberty, and an aversion to the church of England; and to both of these, nothing could appear more exceptionable, than the court of high-commission, whose institution rendered it intirely arbitrary, and assigned to it the defence of the ecclesiastical establishment. The star-chamber too was a court, which exerted very high discretionary powers; and had no precise rule nor limit, either with regard to the

causes, which came under its jurisdiction, or the decisions, which it formed. A bill unanimously passed the houses, to abolish these two courts; and in them, to annihilate the principal and most dangerous articles of the King's prerogative. By the same bill, the jurisdiction of the council was regulated, and its authority abridged. Charles hesitated before he gave his assent. But finding, that he had gone too far to retreat, and that he possessed no resource in case of a rupture, he at last affixed the royal sanction to these excellent bills. But to show the parliament, that he was sufficiently apprised of the importance of his grant, he observed to them, that these new statutes, altered, in a great measure, the fundamental laws, ecclesiastical and civil, which many of his predecessors had established.

By removing the star-chamber, the King's power of issuing proclamations, was indirectly abolished; and that important branch of prerogative, the strong symbol of arbitrary power, and unintelligible in a limited constitution, being at last removed, left the system of government entirely consistent and uniform. The star-chamber alone was accustomed to punish infractions of the king's edicts: But as no courts of judicature now remained, except those in Westminster-hall, which take cognizance only of common and statute law, the king may thenceforth issue proclamations, but no man is bound to obey them. It must, however, be confessed, that the experiment here made by the parliament, was not a little rash and adventurous. No government, at that time, appeared in the world, nor is perhaps to be found in the records of any history, which subsisted without the mixture of some arbitrary authority, committed to some magistrate; and it might reasonably, beforehand, appear doubtful, whether human society could ever arrive at that state of perfection, as to support itself with no other control, than the general and rigid maxims of law and equity. But the parliament justly thought, that the king was too eminent a magistrate to be trusted with discretionary power, which he might so easily turn to the destruction of liberty. And in the event, it has been found,

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that, tho' some inconveniences arise from the strict adherence to law, yet the advantages so much overballance, as should render the English for ever grateful to the memory of their ancestors, who, after repeated contests, at last established that noble principle.

At the request of the parliament, Charles, instead of the patents during pleasure, gave all the judges patents during their good behavior: A circumstance of the greatest consequence towards securing their independancy, and barring the entrance of arbitrary power into the ordinary courts of judicature.

The marshal's court, which took cognizance of offensive words, and was not esteemed sufficiently limited by law, was also, for that reason, abolished. The stannary courts, which exercised jurisdiction over the miners, being liable to a like objection, underwent a like fate. The abolition of the council of the north and the council of Wales followed from the same principles. The authority of the clerk of the market, who had a general inspection over the weights and measures thro'out the kingdom, was transferred to the mayors, sheriffs, and ordinary magistrates.

In short, if we take a survey of the transactions of this memorable parliament, during the first period of their operations; we shall find, that, excepting Strafford's attainder, which was a complication of cruel iniquity, their merits, in other respects, so much overballance their mistakes, as to intitle them to very ample praises from all lovers of liberty. Not only past encroachments were restrained and grievances redressed: Great provision, for the future, was made by excellent laws against the return of like complaints. And if the means, by which they obtained such mighty advantages, savor often of artifice, sometimes of violence; it is to be considered, that revolutions of government cannot be effected by the mere force of argument and reasoning: And that factions being once excited, men can neither so firmly regulate the tempers of others, nor their own, as to ensure themselves against all exorbitances.

The parliament now came to a pause. The King had

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promised his Scotch subjects, that he would this summer pay them a visit in order to settle their government; and tho' the English parliament were very importunate with him, that he should lay aside that journey, they could only prevail with him to delay it. As he must necessarily have passed thro' the troops in his journey, the commons seem to have entertained great jealousy on that account, and to have now hurried on, as much as they formerly delayed, the disbanding the armies. The arrears therefore of the Scotch, were intirely paid them; and those of the English, in part. The Scotch returned home, and the English were separated into their several counties, and dismissed.

After this, the parliament adjourned to the 20th of October; and a committee of both houses, a thing altogether unusual, was appointed to sit during the recess, with very ample powers. Pym was appointed chairman of the committee of the lower house. Farther attempts were made by the parliament, while it sat, and even by the commons alone, for assuming sovereign executive powers, and publishing their ordinances, as they called them, instead of laws. The committee too, on their parts, were very ready to imitate this example.

A small committee of both houses were appointed to attend the King into Scotland, in order, as was pretended, to see that the articles of pacification were executed; but really to be spies upon him, and extend still farther the ideas of parliamentary authority, as well as eclipse the majesty of the King. The Earl of Bedford, Lord Howard, Sir Philip Stapleton, Sir William Armyne, Fiennes, and Hambden, were the persons chosen.

Endeavors were used, before Charles's departure, to have a protector of the kingdom appointed, with a power to pass laws without having recourse to the King. So little regard was now paid to royal authority or to the established constitution of the kingdom.

Amid the great variety of affairs, which occurred during this busy period, we have almost overlooked the marriage of the Princess Mary with William Prince of Orange. The

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King concluded not this alliance without communicating his intentions to the parliament, who received the proposal with satisfaction. This was the commencement of the connections with the family of Orange: Connections, which were afterwards attended with the most important consequences, tho' of a different nature, both to the kingdom and the house of Stuart.

## CHAP. VI

*Settlement of Scotland – Conspiracy in Ireland – Insurrection and massacre – Meeting of the English parliament – The remonstrance – Reasons on both sides – Impeachment of the bishops – Accusation of the five members – Tumults – King leaves London – Arrives in Yorke – Preparations for civil war*

THE Scotch, who first began these fatal commotions, thought, that they had finished a very perilous undertaking, much to their profit and reputation. By the English parliament, beside the ample pay voted them for lying in good quarters during a twelvemonth, they had conferred on them a present of 300,000 pounds for their brotherly assistance: In the articles of pacification, they were declared to have ever been good subjects; and their military expeditions were approved of, as enterprizes calculated and intended for his Majesty's honor and advantage: To carry farther the triumph over their sovereign, these terms, so ignominious for him, were ordered, by a vote of parliament, to be read in all churches, upon a day of thanksgiving, appointed for the national pacification: All their claims, for the restriction of prerogative, were agreed to be ratified: And what they more valued than all these advantages; they had a near prospect of spreading the presbyterian discipline in England and Ireland, from the seeds, which they had scattered, of their religious principles. Never did refined Athens so exult in diffusing the sciences and liberal arts over a savage world: Never did generous Rome so please herself in the view of law and order established by her victorious arms: As the Scotch now rejoiced, in communicating their barbarous zeal, and theological fervor, to the neighboring nations.

Charles, despoiled in England of a considerable part of his authority, and dreading still farther encroachments

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upon him, arrived in Scotland, with an intention of abdicating almost entirely the small share of power, which *there* remained to him, and of giving full satisfaction, if possible, to that restless people.

The lords of articles were an antient institution in the Scotch parliament. They were constituted after this manner. The lords chose eight bishops: The bishops elected eight lords: These sixteen named eight commissioners of counties: These twenty four appointed eight burgesses: And without the previous consent of the thirty two, who were denominated lords of articles, no motion could be made in the parliament. As the bishops were intirely devoted to the court, it is evident, that the whole lords of articles, by necessary consequence, depended on the king's nomination; and the prince, beside one negative after passing the bills thro' the parliament, possessed indirectly another before their introduction; a prerogative of much greater consequence than the former. The bench of bishops being now abolished, the parliament wisely laid hold of the opportunity, and totally set aside the lords of articles: And till this important point was obtained, the nation, properly speaking, could not be said to enjoy any regular freedom.

'Tis remarkable, that, notwithstanding this institution, which had no parallel in England, the royal authority was always esteemed much lower in Scotland than in the former kingdom. Bacon represents it as one advantage to be expected from the union, that the too extensive prerogative of England would be abridged by the example of Scotland, and the too narrow prerogative of Scotland be enlarged from imitation of England. The English were, at that time, a civilized people, and obedient to the laws: But among the Scotch, it was of little consequence, how the laws were framed, or by whom voted; while the exorbitant aristocracy had it so much in their power to prevent their regular execution.

The peers and commons formed only one house in the Scotch parliament: And as it had been the practice of

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James, continued by Charles, to grace English gentlemen with Scotch titles, and those transmitted their proxies to whomever the king pleased; the whole determinations of parliament, it was to be feared, would in time depend upon the prince, by means of these votes of absent foreigners, who had no interest nor concern in the nation. It was therefore a law, deserving great approbation, that no man should be capable of being created a Scotch peer, who possessed not 10,000 merks (above 500 pounds) of annual rent in the kingdom.

A law for triennial parliaments was likeways passed; and it was ordained, that the last act of every parliament should be to appoint the time and place for holding the parliament next ensuing.

The King was deprived of that power, formerly exercised, of issuing proclamations, which enjoined obedience under the penalty of treason: A prerogative, which invested him the whole legislative authority, even in matters of the highest consequence.

So far was laudable: But the most fatal blow given to royal authority, and what, in a manner, dethroned the Prince, was the article, that no member of the privy council, in whose hands, during the King's absence, the whole administration lay, no officer of state, none of the judges, should be appointed but by advice and approbation of parliament. Charles even agreed to deprive, of their seats, four judges who had adhered to his interests; and their place was supplied by others more agreeable to the ruling party. Several of the covenanters were also sworn of the privy council. And all the ministers of state, counsellors, and judges, by law, were to hold their places during life or good behavior.

The King, while in Scotland, conformed himself entirely to the established church; and assisted, with great gravity, at the long prayers and longer sermons, with which the presbyterians endeavored to regale him. He bestowed pensions and preferments on Henderson, Gillespy, and other popular preachers; and practised every art to soften, if

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not to gain, his greatest enemies. The Earl of Argyle he created a marquis, Lord Loudon an earl, Lesly he dignified with the title of Earl of Leven. His friends, he was obliged, for the present, to neglect and overlook: Some of them were disgusted: And his enemies were not reconciled; but ascribed all his caresses and favors to artifice and necessity.

Argyle and Hamilton, being seized with an apprehension, real or counterfeit, that the Earl of Crawford and others intended to assassinate them, left the parliament suddenly, and retired into the country: But upon invitation and assurances, returned in a few days. This event, which had neither cause nor effect that was visible, nor purpose, nor consequence, was commonly denominated the *incident*. But tho' this event had no effect in Scotland; what was not expected, it was attended with consequences in England. The English parliament, which was now assembled, being willing to awaken the people's tenderness by exciting their fears, immediately seized the alarm; as if the malignants, so they called the King's party, had laid a plot at once to murder them and all the godly in both kingdoms. They applied, therefore, to Essex, whom the King had left general in the south of England; and he ordered a guard to attend them.

But while the King was employed in pacifying the commotions in Scotland, and was preparing to return to England, in order to apply himself to the same salutary work in that kingdom; he received news of a dangerous rebellion broke out in Ireland, with circumstances of the utmost horror, bloodshed, and devastation. On every side, this unfortunate Prince was pursued with murmurs, discontent, faction, and civil wars; and the fire, from all quarters, even by the most independent accidents, at once blazed up about him.

The great plan of James, in the administration of Ireland, continued by Charles, was, by justice and peace, to reconcile that turbulent people to the authority of laws, and, introducing art and industry among them, to cure that sloth and

barbarism to which they had ever been subject. In order to serve both these purposes, and, at the same time, secure the dominion of Ireland to the English crown, great colonies of British had been carried over, and, being intermixed with the Irish, had every where introduced a new face of things into that country. During a peace of near forty years, the inveterate quarrels betwixt the nations seemed, in a great measure, obliterated; and tho' much of the landed property, forfeited by rebellion, had been conferred on the new planters, a more than equal return had been made, by their instructing the natives in tillage, building, manufactures, and all the civilized arts of life. This had been the course of things during the successive administrations of Chichester, Grandison, Falkland, and, above all, of Strafford. Under the government of this last Nobleman, the pacific plans, now come to greater maturity, and forwarded by his vigor and industry, seemed to have operated with full success, and to have bestowed, at last, on that savage country, the face of an European settlement.

After Strafford fell a victim to popular rage, the humors, excited in Ireland by that great event, could not suddenly be composed, but continued to produce the greatest innovations in the government.

The British protestants transplanted into Ireland, having, every moment, before their eyes all the horrors of popery, had naturally been carried into the opposite extreme, and had universally adopted the highest principles and practices of the puritans. Monarchy, as well as the hierarchy, was become odious to them; and every method of limiting the authority of the crown, and detaching themselves from the king of England, was greedily adopted and pursued. They considered not, that, as they scarce composed the sixth part of the people, and were secretly obnoxious to the antient inhabitants; their only method of supporting themselves was by maintaining royal authority, and preserving a great dependance on their mother-country. The English commons too, in their furious prosecution of Strafford, had overlooked the most obvious consequences; and, while they

imputed to him, as a crime, every discretionary act of authority, they despoiled all succeeding governors of that power, by which alone the Irish could be retained in subjection. And so strong was the current for popular government in all the three kingdoms, that the most established maxims of policy were every where abandoned, in order to gratify this ruling passion.

Charles, unable to resist, had been obliged to yield to the Irish, as to the Scotch and English parliaments; and found too, that their encroachments still rose in proportion to his concessions. Those subsidies, which themselves had voted, they reduced, by a subsequent vote, to a fourth part: The court of high commission they determined to be a grievance: Martial law they abolished: The jurisdiction of the council they annihilated: Proclamations and acts of state they declared of no authority: Every order or institution, which depended on monarchy, was invaded; and their prince was despoiled of all his prerogative, without the least pretext of any violence or illegality in his administration.

The standing army of Ireland was usually about 3000 men; but in order to assist the King in supressing the Scotch covenanters, Strafford had raised 8000 more, and had incorporated with them a thousand men, drawn from the old army; a requisite expedient for bestowing order and discipline on the new-levied soldiers. The private men in this army were wholly catholics; but the officers, both commission and non-commission, were protestants, and could entirely be depended on by Charles. The English commons entertained the greatest apprehensions on account of this army; and never ceased solliciting the King, till he agreed to break it: Nor would they consent to any proposals for augmenting the standing army to 5000 men; a number which the King judged requisite for retaining Ireland in obedience.

Charles, esteeming it dangerous, that 8000 men, accustomed to idleness, and trained in the use of arms, should be dispersed among a nation so turbulent and unsettled, agreed with the Spanish ambassador to have them trans-

ported into Flanders, and inlisted in his master's service. The English commons, apprehensive, that regular bodies of troops, disciplined in the low countries, would prove still more dangerous, showed some aversion to this expedient; and the King reduced his allowance to 4000 men. But when the Spaniards had hired ships for transporting these troops, and the men were ready for embarkation; the commons, willing to show their power, and not displeased with an opportunity of curbing and affronting the King, prohibited every one from furnishing vessels for that service. And thus the project, formed by Charles, of freeing the country from these men, was unfortunately disappointed.

The old Irish catholics remarked all these false steps of the English, and resolved to take advantage of them. Tho' their animosity against that nation, for want of an occasion to exert itself, seemed to be extinguished, it was only composed into a temporary and deceitful tranquility. Their interests, both with regard to *property* and to *religion*, secretly stimulated them to a revolt. No individual of any sept, according to the antient customs, had the property of any particular estate; but as the whole sept had a title to a whole territory, they ignorantly preferred this barbarous community before the more secure and narrower possessions assigned them by the English. An indulgence, amounting almost to a toleration, had been given the catholic religion: But so long as the churches and the ecclesiastical revenues were kept from the priests, and they were obliged to endure the neighborhood of profane heretics; being themselves discontented, they endeavored continually to retard any cordial reconciliation betwixt the English and the Irish nations.

There was a gentleman, called Roger More, who, tho' of a narrow fortune, was descended from a very antient Irish family, and was much celebrated among his countrymen for valor and capacity. This man first formed the project of expelling the English, and asserting the independency of his native country. He secretly went from cheiftain to cheiftain, and rouzed up every latent principle of discon-

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tent. A close correspondence he maintained with Lord Maguire and Sir Phelim Oneale, the most powerful of the old Irish. By conversation, by letters, by his emissaries, he represented to his countrymen the motives of a revolt. He observed to them, That, by the rebellion of the Scotch and factions of the English, the king's authority in Britain was reduced to so low a condition, that he never could exert himself with any vigor, in maintaining the English dominion over Ireland; that the catholics, in the Irish house of commons, assisted by the protestants, had so diminished the royal prerogative and the power of the lieutenant, as would much facilitate the conducting, to its desired effect, any conspiracy or combination, which could be formed; that the Scotch, having so sucessfully thrown off dependance on the crown of England, and assumed the government into their own hands, had set an example to the Irish, who had so much greater oppressions to complain of; that the distractions in England, occasioned by the mutual jealousies and encroachments of king and people, did at present, and would long incapacitate that kingdom from sending over armies, sufficient to quell the revolted Irish; that the English planters, who had expelled them their possessions, subdued their religion, and bereaved them of their liberties, were but a handful in comparison of the natives; that they lived in the most supine security, interspersed with their numerous enemies, trusting to the protection of a small army, which was itself scattered in inconsiderable divisions thro' the whole kingdom; that a great body of men, disciplined by the government, were now thrown loose, and were ready for any daring or desperate enterprize; that tho' the catholics had hitherto enjoyed, in some tolerable measure, the exercise of their religion, from the moderation of their indulgent prince, they must henceforth expect, that the government will be conducted by other maxims and other principles; that the puritanical parliament, having at last subdued their sovereign, would, no doubt, so soon as they had consolidated their authority, extend their ambitious enterprizes to Ireland, and make the catholics in that king-

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dom feel the same furious persecution, to which their brethren in England were at present exposed; and that a revolt in the Irish, tending only to vindicate their native liberty against the violence of foreign invaders, could never, at any time, be deemed rebellion; much less, during the present confusions, when their prince was, in a manner, a prisoner, and obedience must be paid, not to him, but to those, who had traiterously usurped his lawful authority.

By these considerations, More engaged all the heads of the native Irish into the conspiracy. The English of the pale, as they were called, or the old English planters, being all catholics, it was hoped, would afterwards join the party, which restored their religion to its antient splendor and authority. The intention was, that, by Sir Phelim Oneale and the other conspirators, an insurrection should be begun on one day, thro'out the provinces, and all the English settlements be attacked; and that, on the very same day, Lord Maguire and Roger More should surprize the castle of Dublin. The commencement of this revolt they fixed on the approach of winter; that there might be more difficulty in transporting forces from England. Succors to themselves and supplies of arms they expected from France, in consequence of a promise made them by Cardinal Richelieu. And many Irish officers, who served in the Spanish troops, had given assurances of joining, as soon as they saw an insurrection entered upon by their catholic brethren. News, which, every day, arrived from England, of the fury, expressed by the commons against all papists, struck fresh terror into the Irish nation, and both stimulated the conspirators to execute their fatal purpose, and gave them assured hopes of the concurrence of their countrymen.

Such propensity to a revolt was discovered in all the Irish, that it was esteemed unnecessary, as it was dangerous, to entrust the secret to many hands; and the appointed day drew nigh, nor had any discovery been yet made to the government. The King, indeed, had received information from his ambassadors, that something was in agitation among the Irish in foreign parts; but tho' he gave warning

to the administration in Ireland, the intelligence was entirely neglected. Secret rumors, likeways, were heard of some approaching conspiracy; but no attention was paid to them. The Earl of Leicester, whom the King had appointed lieutenant, remained in London. The two justices, Sir William Parsons and Sir John Borlace, were men of small ability, and, by an inconvenience common to all factious times, owed their advancement to nothing but their zeal for that party, by whom every thing was now governed. Tranquill from their ignorance and inexperience, these men indulged themselves in the most profound repose, on the very brink of destruction.

But, they were awakened from their security, the very day before that appointed for the commencement of hostilities. The castle of Dublin, by which the capital was commanded, contained arms for 10,000 men, along with thirty-five pieces of canon, and a proportionable quantity of ammunition: Yet was this important place guarded, and that too without any care, by no greater force than fifty men. Maguire and More were already in town with a numerous band of their retainers: Others were expected that night: And, next morning, they were to enter upon, what they esteemed the easiest of all enterprizes, the surprizal of the castle. Oconolly, an Irishman, but a protestant, betrayed the secret to Parsons. The justices and council, for safety, fled immediately into the castle, and re-inforced the guards. The alarm was conveyed to the city, and all the protestants prepared for defence. More escaped: Maguire was taken; and Mahone, one of the conspirators, being likeways seized, first discovered, to the justices, the project of a general insurrection, and redoubled the apprehensions, which were already universally diffused thro'out Dublin.

But tho' Oconolly's discovery saved the castle from a surprize, the confession, extorted from Mahone, came too late to prevent the intended insurrection. Oneale and his confederates had already taken arms in Ulster. The Irish, every where intermingled with the English, needed but a hint from their leaders and priests to begin hostilities

against a people, whom they hated on account of their religion, and envied for their riches and prosperity. The houses, cattle, goods, of the unwary English were first seized. Those, who heard of the commotions in their neighborhood, instead of deserting their habitations, and flocking together for mutual protection, remained at home, in hopes of defending their property! and fell thus separately into the hands of their enemies. After rapacity had fully exerted itself, cruelty, and the most barbarous, that ever, in any nation, was known or heard of, began its operations. An universal massacre commenced of the English, now defenceless and passively resigned to their inhuman foes. No age, no sex, no condition, was spared. The wife, weeping for her butchered husband, and embracing her helpless children, was pierced along with them, and perished by the same stroke. The old, the young, the vigorous, the infirm, underwent a like fate, and were confounded in one common ruin. In vain did flight save from the first assault: Destruction was, every where, let loose, and met the hunted victims at every turn. In vain was recourse had to relations, to companions, to friends: All connexions were dissolved, and death was dealt by that inhuman hand, from which protection was implored and expected. Without provocation, without opposition, the astonished English, living in profound peace and full security, were massacred by their nearest neighbors, with whom they had long upheld a continued intercourse of kindness and good offices.

But death was the lightest punishment, inflicted by those more than barbarous savages: All the tortures, which wanton cruelty could devise, all the lingering pains of body, the anguish of mind, the agonies of despair, could not satiate revenge excited without injury, and cruelty derived from no cause. To enter into particulars would shock the least delicate humanity. Such enormities, tho' attested by undoubted evidence, appear almost incredible. Depraved nature, even perverted religion, tho' encouraged by the utmost licence, reach not such a pitch of ferocity; unless the pity, inherent in human breasts, be lost by that contagion of example,

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which transports men beyond all the usual motives of conduct and behavior.

The weaker sex themselves, naturally tender to their own sufferings, and compassionate to those of others, here emulated their more robust companions, in the practice of every cruelty. Even children, taught by the example, and encouraged by the exhortation, of their brutal parents, essayed their feeble blows on the dead carcasses or defenceless children of the English. The very avarice of the Irish was not a sufficient restraint to their cruelty. Such was their frenzy, that the cattle, which they had seized, and by rapine had made their own, yet, because they bore the name of English, were wantonly slaughtered, or, covered with wounds, turned loose into the woods and desarts.

The stately buildings or commodious habitations of the planters, as if upbraiding the sloth and ignorance of the natives, were consumed with fire or laid level with the ground. And where the miserable owners, shut up in their houses, and preparing for defence, perished in the flames, along with their wives and children, a double triumph was afforded to these insulting butchers.

If any where a number, assembled together, and, assuming courage from despair, were resolved to sweeten death by a revenge on their barbarous assassins; they were disarmed by capitulations, and promises of safety, confirmed by the most solemn oaths. But no sooner had they surrendered, than the rebels, with perfidy equal to their cruelty, made them share the fate of their unhappy countrymen.

Others, more ingenious still in their barbarity, tempted their prisoners, by the fond love of life, to embrue their hands in the blood of friends, brothers, parents; and having thus rendered them accomplices in guilt, gave them that death, which they sought to shun by deserving it.

Amidst all these enormities, the sacred name of RELIGION resounded on every side; not to stop the hand of these inhuman savages, but to enforce their blows, and to steel their heart against every movement of human or social sympathy. The English, as heretics, abhorred of God, and

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detestable to all holy men, were marked out by the priests for slaughter; and, of all actions, to rid the world of these declared enemies to catholic faith and piety, was represented as the most meritorious. Nature, which, in that rude people, was sufficiently inclined to atrocious deeds, was farther stimulated by precept; and national prejudices empoisoned by those aversions, more deadly and incurable, which arose from an enraged superstition. While death finished the sufferings of each victim, the bigotted assassins, with joy and exultation, still echoed in his expiring ears, that these agonies were but the commencement of torments, infinite and eternal.

Such were the barbarities, by which Sir Phelim Oneale and the Irish in Ulster signalized their rebellion: An event, memorable in the annals of human kind, and worthy to be held in perpetual detestation and abhorrence. The generous nature of More was shocked at the recital of such enormous cruelties. He flew to Oneale's camp; but found, that his authority, which was sufficient to excite the Irish to an insurrection, was too feeble to restrain their inhumanity. Soon after, he abandoned a cause, polluted with so many crimes; and retired into Flanders. Sir Phelim, recommended by the greatness of his family, and perhaps too, by the unrestrained brutality of his nature; tho without any courage or capacity, acquired the intire ascendant over the northern rebels. The English colonies were totally annihilated in the open country of Ulster: The Scotch, at first, met with more favorable treatment. In order to engage them to a passive neutrality, the Irish pretended to distinguish betwixt the British nations; and claiming friendship and consanguinity with the Scotch, extended not over them the fury of their massacres. Many of them found an opportunity to fly the country: Others retired into places of security, and prepared themselves for defence: And by this means, the Scotch planters, most of them at least, escaped with their lives.

From Ulster, the flames of rebellion diffused themselves, in an instant, over the three other provinces of Ireland. In

all places, death and slaughter were not uncommon; tho' the Irish, in these other provinces, pretended to act with more moderation and humanity. But cruel and barbarous was their humanity! Not contented with expelling the English their houses, with despoiling them of their goodly manors, with wasting their cultivated fields: They stripped them of their very cloaths, and turned them out, naked and defenceless, to all the severities of the season. The heavens themselves, as if conspiring against that unhappy people, were armed with cold and tempest, unusual to the climate, and executed what the merciless sword of the barbarians had left unfinished. The roads were covered with crowds of naked English, hastening towards Dublin and the other cities, which yet remained in the hands of their countrymen. The feeble age of children, the tender sex of women, soon succumbed under the multiplied rigors of cold and hunger. Here, the weeping husband, bidding a final adieu to his expiring family, envied them that fate, which he himself expected so soon to share: There, the son, having long supported his aged parent, with reluctance obeyed his last commands, and abandoning him in this uttermost distress, reserved himself to the hopes of revenging that death, which all his efforts could not prevent nor delay. The astonishing greatness of the calamity deprived the sufferers of any relief from the view of companions in affliction. With silent tears, or lamentable cries, they hurried on thro' the hostile territories; and found every heart, which was not immured in unrelenting barbarity, guarded by the more implacable furies of mistaken piety and religion.

The saving of Dublin preserved in Ireland the relicts of the English name. The gates of that city, tho' timorously opened, received the wretched supplicants, and displayed a view of human misery, beyond what any eye had ever before beheld. Compassion seized the amazed inhabitants, aggravated with the fear of like calamities; while they observed the numerous foes, without and within, which every where environed them, and reflected on the weak resources, by which they were themselves supported. The more

vigorous of the unhappy fugitives, to the number of three thousand, were inlisted into three regiments. The rest were distributed into the houses; and all care taken, by diet and warmth, to recruit their feeble and torpid limbs. Diseases of unknown name and species, derived from these multiplied distresses, seized many of them and put a speedy period to their lives: Others, having now leisure to reflect on their mighty loss of friends and fortune, cursed that being, which they had saved. Abandoning themselves to despair, refusing all succor, they expired; without other consolation, than that of receiving, among their countrymen, the honors of a grave, which, to their slaughtered companions, had been denied by the inhuman barbarians.

By some computations, those, who perished by all those cruelties, are made to amount to a hundred and fifty or two hundred thousand: By the most moderate, and probably the most reasonable account, they must have been near forty thousand.

The justices ordered to Dublin all the bodies of the army, which were not surrounded by the rebels; and they assembled a force of 1500 veterans. They soon inlisted, and armed from the magazines above 4000 men more. They dispatched a body of 600 men to throw relief into Tredagh, besieged by the Irish. But these troops, attacked by the enemy, were seized with a panic, and were most of them put to the sword. Their arms, falling into the hands of the Irish, supplied them with that, in which they were most deficient. The justices afterwards thought of nothing more than of providing for their own security and that of the capital. The gallant Earl of Ormond, their general, remonstrated against such timid councils; but was obliged to submit to authority.

The English of the pale, who probably were not, at first, in the secret, pretended to blame the insurrection, and to detest the barbarity, with which it was accompanied. By their protestations and declarations, they engaged the justices to supply them with arms, which they promised to employ in defence of the government. But in a little time,

the interests of religion were found more prevalent over them in regard and duty to their native country. They made Lord Gormanstone their leader; and, joining the old Irish, rivaled them in every act of cruelty towards the English protestants. Beside many smaller bodies, dispersed over the whole kingdom, the principal army of the rebels amounted to 20,000 men, and threatened Dublin with an immediate siege.

Both the English and Irish rebels conspired in one imposture, with which they seduced many of their deluded countrymen: They pretended authority from the King and Queen, but chiefly from the latter, for their insurrection; and the cause, they affirmed, for their taking arms, was to vindicate royal prerogative, now invaded by the puritanical parliament. Sir Phelim Oneale, having found a royal patent in Lord Caulfield's house, whom he had murdered, tore off the seal, and affixed to it a commission, which he had forged for himself.

The King received an account of this insurrection by a messenger, dispatched from the north of Ireland. His intelligence he immediately communicated to the Scotch parliament. He expected, that the mighty zeal, expressed by the Scotch, for the protestant religion, would immediately engage them to fly to its defence, where it was so violently invaded: He hoped, that their horror against popery, a religion, which now appeared in its most horrible aspect, would second all his exhortations: He had observed with what promptitude they had twice run to arms, and assembled troops in opposition to the rights of their sovereign: He saw with how much greater facility they could now collect forces, which had been very lately disbanded, and which had been so long enured to military discipline. The cries of their affrighted and distressed brethren in Ireland, he promised himself, would powerfully incite them to send over succors, which could arrive so quickly, and aid them with such promptitude in this uttermost distress. But the zeal of the Scotch, as is usual among religious sects, was very feeble, when not stimulated either by faction

or by interest. They now considered themselves intirely as a republic, and made no account of the authority of their prince, which they had utterly annihilated. Founding hopes on the present distresses of Ireland, they resolved to make an advantageous bargain for the succors, with which they would supply their neighboring nation. And they cast their eye on the English parliament, with whom they were already so closely connected, and who could alone fulfill any articles, which might be agreed on. Except dispatching a small body to support the Scotch colonies in Ulster; they would, therefore, go no farther, at present, than to send commissioners to London, in order to treat with that power, to whom the sovereign authority was now, in reality, transferred.

The King too, sensible of his utter inability to subdue the Irish rebels, found himself obliged, in this exigency, to have recourse to the English parliament, and depend on their assistance for supply. After conveying the intelligence, which he had received, he informed them, that the insurrection was not, in his opinion, the result of any rash enterprize, but of a formed conspiracy against the crown of England. To their care and wisdom, therefore, he said, he committed the conduct and prosecution of the war, which, in a cause, so important to national and religious interests, must, of necessity, be immediately entered upon, and vigorously pursued.

The English parliament was now assembled; and discovered, in every vote, the same dispositions, in which they had separated. The exalting their own authority, the diminishing the King's, were still the objects pursued by the majority. Every attempt, which had been made to gain the popular leaders, and by offices to attach them to the crown, had failed of success, either for want of skill in conducting it, or by reason of the slender preferments, which it was then in the King's power to confer. The ambitious and enterprizing patriots disdained to accept, in detail, of a precarious power; while they esteemed it so easy, by one bold and vigorous assault, to possess themselves for ever of

the intire sovereignty of the state. Sensible, that the measures, which they had hitherto pursued, rendered them extremely obnoxious to the King; were many of them in themselves exceptionable; some of them, strictly speaking, illegal; they resolved to seek their own security, as well as greatness, by enlarging popular authority in England. The great necessities, to which the King was reduced; the violent prejudices, which generally, thro'out the nation, prevailed against him; his facility in making the most important concessions; the example of the Scotch, whose encroachments had totally subverted monarchy: All these circumstances farther instigated the commons in their invasion of royal prerogative. And the danger, to which the constitution had been so lately exposed, persuaded many, that it never could be sufficiently secured, but by the intire abolition of that authority, which had invaded it.

But this project, it had not been in the power, scarce in the intention, of the popular leaders to execute, had it not been for the passion, which seized the nation, for presbyterian discipline, and for the wild enthusiasm, which, at that time, accompanied it. The licence, which the parliament had bestowed on this spirit, by checking ecclesiastical authority; the countenance and encouragement, with which they had honored it; had already diffused its influence to a wonderful degree: And all orders of men had drunk deep of the intoxicating poison. In each discourse or conversation, this mode of religion entered; in all business, it had a share; every elegant pleasure or amusement, it utterly annihilated; each vice or corruption of mind, it promoted; scarce any disease or bodily distemper was totally exempted from it; and it became requisite, we are told,<sup>1</sup> for all physicians to be expert in the spiritual profession, and, by theological considerations, to allay those religious terrors, with which their patients were so generally haunted. Learning itself, which tends so much to enlarge the mind, and humanize the temper, rather served, on this occasion, to exalt that epidemical frenzy, which prevailed. Rude as yet,

1. Sir William Temple.

and imperfect, it supplied the dismal fanaticism with a variety of views, founded it on some coherency of system, enriched it with different figures of elocution; advantages, with which a people, totally ignorant and barbarous, had been happily unacquainted.

From policy, at first, and inclination, now from necessity, the King attached himself extremely to the hierarchy: For like reasons, his enemies made account, by one and the same effort, to overpower the church and monarchy.

While the commons were in this disposition, nothing to them could be more acceptable than the news of the Irish rebellion; as nothing could more promote the views, in which all their measures terminated. A horror against the papists, however innocent, they had constantly fostered; a terror against the conspiracies of that sect, however improbable, they had, at all times, endeavored to excite. Here was broke out a rebellion; dreadful and unexpected; accompanied with circumstances the most detestable, of which there ever was any record: And what was the peculiar guilt of the Irish catholics, it was no difficult matter, in the present disposition of men's minds, to attribute to that whole sect, who already were so much the object of general abhorrence. Accustomed, in all invectives, to join the prelatrical party with the papists, the people immediately supposed this insurrection to be the result of their united councils. And when they heard, that the Irish rebels pleaded the King's commission for all their violences; bigotry, ever credulous and malignant, assented without scruple to that gross imposture, and loaded the unhappy prince with the whole enormity of a contrivance, so barbarous and inhuman.<sup>2</sup>

2. It is now so universally allowed, notwithstanding some muttering to the contrary, that the King had no hand in the Irish rebellion, that it will be superfluous to insist on a point, which seems so clear. I shall only suggest a very few arguments, among an infinite number, which occur. (1) Ought the affirmation of perfidious, infamous rebels ever to have passed for any authority? (2) No body can tell us what the words of the pretended commission was. That which we find in Rushworth's, and in Milton's works, Toland's edition, is plainly an imposture; because it pretends to be dated in October 1641, yet

By the difficulties and distresses of the crown, the commons, who possessed alone the power of supply, had aggrandized themselves; and it seemed a peculiar happiness, that the Irish rebellion had succeeded, at so critical a juncture, to the pacification of Scotland. That expression of the King, by which he committed to them the care of Ireland, they immediately laid hold of, and interpreted in the most unlimited sense. On the executive power of the crown, which forms its principal and most natural branch of authority,

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mentions facts, which happened not till some months after. It appears that the Irish rebels, observing some inconsistence in their first forgery, were obliged to forge this commission a new, yet could not render it coherent nor probable. (3) Nothing could more obviously be pernicious to the King's cause than the Irish rebellion; because it increased his necessities and rendered him still more dependent on the parliament, who had before sufficiently shown on what terms they would assist him. (4) The instant the King heard of the rebellion, which was a very few days after its commencement, he wrote to the parliament, and gave over to them the management of the war. Had he built any projects on that rebellion, would he not have waited some little time, to see how they would succeed? Would he presently have adopted a measure, which was obviously so hurtful to his authority? (5) What can be imagined to be the King's projects? To raise the Irish to arms, I suppose, and bring them over to England for his assistance. But is it not plain, that the King never intended to raise war in England? Had that been his intention, would he have rendered the parliament perpetual? Does it not appear by the whole train of events, that the parliament forced him into the war? (6) The King conveyed to the justices intelligence, which ought to have prevented the rebellion. (7) The Irish catholics, in all their future transactions with the King, where they endeavor to excuse their insurrection, never had the assurance to plead his commission. Even amongst themselves, they dropped that pretext. It appears that Sir Phelim Oneale, chiefly, and he only at first, promoted that imposture. See Cartes Ormond, vol. iii. No 100, 111, 112, 114, 115, 121, 132, 137. (8) Oneale himself confessed the imposture on his trial and at his execution. See Nalson, vol. ii. p. 528. (9) It is ridiculous to mention, the justification which Charles II gave to the Marquis of Antrim, as if he had acted by his father's commission. Antrim had no hand in the first rebellion and the massacre. He joined not the rebels till two years after, and he performed important services to the King, in sending over a body of men to Montrose.

they had, in other instances, been gradually encroaching; but with regard to Ireland they at once assumed it, fully and intirely, as if delivered over to them by a regular gift or assignment. And to this usurpation the King was obliged passively to submit; both because of his utter inability to resist, and lest he should expose himself still more to the reproach of favoring the progress of that odious rebellion.

The project of introducing farther innovations in England being once formed by the leaders among the commons, it became a necessary consequence, that their operations with regard to Ireland would, all of them, be considered as subordinate to the former, on whose success, when once undertaken, their own grandeur, security, and even being, must intirely depend. While they pretended the utmost zeal against the Irish insurrection, they took no steps towards its suppression, but such as likeways tended to give them the superiority in those commotions, which, they foresaw, must so soon be excited in England. The extreme contempt, entertained towards the natives in Ireland, made the popular leaders believe, that it would be easy, at any time, to suppress their rebellion, and recover that kingdom: Nor were they willing to lose, by too hasty success, the advantage, which that rebellion would afford them in their projected encroachments on the prerogative. By assuming the total management of the war, they acquired the courtship and dependence of every one, who had any connection with Ireland, or who was desirous of inlisting in these military enterprizes: Money they levied under pretext of the Irish expedition; but reserved it for purposes, which concerned them more nearly: Arms they took from the King's magazines; but still kept them, with a secret intention of employing them against himself: Whatever law they esteemed requisite for aggrandizing themselves, was voted, under color of enabling them to recover Ireland; and if Charles with-held the royal assent, his refusal was imputed to those pernicious councils, which had at first excited the popish rebellion, and which still threatened total destruction to the protestant interest, thro'out all the King's dominions.

And, tho' no forces were for a long time sent over to Ireland, and very little money remitted, during the extreme distress of that kingdom; so strong was the people's attachment to the commons, that the fault was never imputed to those pious zealots, whose votes breathed nothing but fire and destruction to the Irish rebels.

To make the attack on royal authority by regular approaches, it was thought proper to form a general remonstrance of the state of the kingdom; and accordingly, the committee, which, at the first meeting of the parliament, had been chosen for that purpose, and which had hitherto made no advance in their work, received fresh injunctions to finish that undertaking.

The committee brought into the house that remonstrance, which has become so memorable, and which was soon afterwards attended with such important consequences. It was not addressed to the King; but was openly declared to be an appeal to the people. The harshness of the matter was equalled by the severity of the language. It consists of many gross falsehoods, intermingled with many evident truths: Malignant insinuations are joined to open invectives: Loud complaints of the past, accompanied with jealous prognostications of the future. Whatever unfortunate, whatever invidious, whatever suspicious measure, had been embraced by the King from the commencement of his reign, is insisted on and aggravated with merciless rhetoric: Nothing is omitted, which could bear the least shadow of blame: Every color, which suited the prevailing prejudices, is employed: All circumstances, which could render the King's administration odious and contemptible, are collected. The unsuccessful expeditions to Cadiz and the isle of Rhé are mentioned: The sending ships to France for suppression of the hugonots: The forced loans: The illegal confinement of men for not obeying illegal commands: The violent dissolution of four parliaments: The arbitrary government, which always succeeded: The questioning, fining, and imprisoning members for their conduct in the house: The levying of taxes without consent of the

commons: The introducing superstitious innovations into the church, without authority of law: In short, every thing, which, either with or without reason, had given offence, during the course of fifteen years, from the accession of the King to the calling of the present parliament. And, tho' all these grievances had been already redressed, and even laws enacted for future security against their return, the praise of all these advantages was ascribed, not to the King, but to the parliament, who had extorted his consent to such salutary statutes. Their own merits too, they asserted, towards the King, were equally great, as towards the people. Tho' they had seized his whole revenue, rendered it totally precarious, and made even their temporary supplies be paid into their own commissioners, who were independent of him; they pretended, that they had very liberally supported him in his necessities. By an insult still more egregious, the very giving money to the Scotch for levying war against their sovereign, they represented as an instance of their duty towards him. And all their grievances, they said, which amounted to no less than a total subversion of the constitution, proceeded intirely from the formed combination of a popish faction, who had ever swayed the King's councils, who had endeavored, by an uninterrupted effort, to introduce their superstition into England and Scotland, and who had now, at last, excited an open and bloody rebellion in Ireland.

This remonstrance, so full of acrimony and violence, was a plain signal for some farther attacks intended on royal prerogative, and a declaration, that the concessions, already made, however important, were not to be regarded as satisfactory. What pretensions would be advanced, how unusual, how unlimited, were easily imagined; and nothing less was foreseen, what ever antient names might be preserved, than an abolition, almost total, of the monarchical government of England. The opposition, therefore, which the remonstrance met with in the house of commons, was very great. For above fourteen hours, the debate was warmly managed; and from the lassitude of the King's party, which probably

consisted more of the elderly people, and men of cool spirits, the vote was, at last, carried by a small majority of eleven. Some time after, the remonstrance was ordered to be printed and published, without being carried up, as is usual in such cases, to the house of peers, for their assent and approbation.

When this remonstrance was dispersed, it excited, every where, the same violent controversy, which had attended it, when introduced into the house of commons. This parliament, said the partizans of that assembly, have at last profited by the fatal example of their predecessors; and are resolved, that the fabric, which they have generously undertaken to rear for the protection of liberty, shall not be left to future ages, insecure and imperfect. At the time, when the petition of right, that requisite vindication of a violated constitution, was extorted from the unwilling prince; who but imagined, that liberty was at last ascertained, and that the laws would thenceforth maintain themselves in opposition to arbitrary authority? But what was the event? A *right* was indeed acquired to the people, or rather their antient right was more exactly defined: But as the *power* of invading it still remained in the prince, no sooner did an opportunity offer, than he totally disregarded all laws and preceding engagements, and made his will and pleasure the sole rule of government. Those lofty ideas of monarchical government, which he has derived from his early education, which are united in his mind with the irresistible illusions of self-love, which are corroborated by his mistaken principles of religion, it is vainly hoped, in his more advanced age, that he will sincerely renounce, from any subsequent reflection or experience. Such conversions, if ever they happen, are extremely rare; but to expect, that they will be derived from necessity, from the jealousy and resentment of antagonists, from blame, from reproach, from opposition, must be the result of the fondest and most blind credulity. These violences, however requisite, are sure to irritate a prince against limitations, so cruelly imposed upon him; and each concession, which he is inforced to

make, is regarded as a temporary tribute paid to faction and sedition, and is secretly attended with a resolution of seizing every favorable opportunity to retract it. Nor should we imagine, that opportunities of that kind will not offer in the course of human affairs. Governments, especially those of a mixed kind, are in continual vibration: The humors of the people fluctuate perpetually from one extreme to another: And no resolution can be more wise, as well as more just, than that of employing the present advantages against the king, who had formerly pushed much less tempting ones to the utmost extremity against his people and his parliament. It is to be feared, if the religious rage, which has seized the multitude, be allowed to evaporate, they will quickly return to the antient ecclesiastical establishment; and embrace, along with it, those principles of slavery, which it inculcates with such zeal on its submissive proselytes. Those patriots, who are now the public idols, may then become the objects of general detestation; and equal shouts of joy attend their ignominious execution, with those which second their present triumphs and advantages. Nor ought the apprehension of such an event to be regarded in them as a selfish consideration: In their safety is involved the security of the laws: The patrons of the constitution cannot suffer without a fatal blow to the constitution: And 'tis but justice in the public to protect, at any hazard, those, who have so generously exposed themselves to the utmost hazard for the public interest. What tho' monarchy, the antient government of England, be impaired, during these contests, in many of its former prerogatives? The laws will flourish the more by its decay; and 'tis happy, allowing, that matters are really carried beyond the bounds of moderation, that the current, at least, runs towards liberty, and that the error is on that side, which is safest for the general interests of mankind and society.

The best arguments of the royalists against a farther invasion of the prerogative, were founded more on opposite ideas, which they had formed of the past events of this reign, than on opposite principles of government. Some in-

vasions, they said, and those too, of great consequence, had undoubtedly been made on national privileges: But were we to look for the cause of these violences, we should never find it to consist in the wanton tyranny and injustice of the prince, not even in his ambition or immoderate appetite for authority. The hostilities with Spain, in which the King, on his accession, found himself engaged, however imprudent and unnecessary, had proceeded from the advice, and even importunity of the parliament; who deserted him immediately after they had embarked him in those warlike measures. A young prince, jealous of honor, was naturally afraid of being foiled in his first enterprize, and had not, as yet, arrived at such maturity of council, as to perceive, that his greatest honor lay in preserving the laws inviolate, and gaining the intire confidence of his people. The rigor of the subsequent parliaments had been extreme with regard to many articles, particularly tonnage and poundage; and had reduced the King to an absolute necessity, if he would preserve entire the royal prerogative, of levying those duties by his own authority, and of breaking thro' the forms, in order to maintain the spirit of the constitution. Having once made so perilous a step, he was naturally induced to continue, and consult the public interest, by levying ship-money, and other moderate, tho' irregular, impositions and taxations. His error was, perhaps, excusable, if, esteeming a formidable navy a great security to the nation, he was not sensible, that, to preserve the harmony of the government, contributed still more to public security, as well as happiness. It is now full time to free him from all these necessities, and to apply cordials and lenitives, after those severities, which have already had their full course against him. Never sovereign was blessed with more moderation of temper, with more justice, more humanity, more honor, or a more magnanimous disposition. What pity, that such a prince, should so long have been harrassed with rigors, suspicions, calumnies, complaints, encroachments; and been forced from that path, in which the rectitude of his disposition would have inclined him to have constantly trod! If some

instances are found of violations made on the petition of right, which he himself had granted; there is an easier and more natural way for preventing the return of like inconveniences than by a total abolition of royal authority. Let the revenue be settled, suitable to the antient dignity and splendor of the crown; let the public necessities be fully supplied; let the remaining articles of prerogative be left untouched: And the King, as he has already lost the power, will lay aside the will, of invading the constitution. From what quarter can jealousies now arise? What farther security can be desired or expected? The King's precedent concessions, so far from being insufficient for public security, have rather erred on the other extreme; and, by depriving him of all power of self-defence, are the real cause, why the commons are emboldened to raise pretensions hitherto unheard of in the kingdom, and to subvert the whole system of the constitution. But, would they be contented with moderate advantages, is it not evident, that, beside other important concessions, the present parliament may be continued till the government is accustomed to the new track, and every part is restored to full harmony and concord? By the triennial bill, a perpetual succession of parliaments is established, as everlasting guardians to the laws; while the king possesses no independent power or military force, by which he can be supported in his invasion of them. No danger remains, but what is inseparable from all free constitutions, and what forms the very essence of their liberty: The danger of a change in the people's disposition, and of general disgust, contracted against popular privileges. To prevent such an evil, no expedient is more proper, than to contain ourselves within the bounds of moderation, and to consider, that all extremes, naturally and infallibly, beget each other. In the same manner as the past usurpations of the crown have excited an immeasurable appetite for liberty; let us beware, lest our encroachments, by introducing anarchy, make the people seek shelter under the peaceable and despotic rule of a monarch. Authority, as well as liberty, is requisite to government; and is even requisite to the support

of liberty itself, by maintaining the laws, which can alone regulate and protect it. What madness, while every thing is so happily settled under antient forms and institutions, now more exactly poised and adjusted, to try the hazardous experiment of a new constitution, and renounce the mature wisdom of our ancestors for the crude whimsies of turbulent innovators? Beside the certain and inconceivable mischiefs of civil war; are not the perils apparent, which the delicate frame of liberty must inevitably run amidst the furious flock of arms? Whichever side prevails, she can scarce hope to remain inviolate, and may suffer no less or greater injuries from the boundless pretensions of forces engaged in her cause, than from the invasion of enraged troops, enlisted on the side of monarchy.

The King, upon his return from Scotland, was received in London with the shouts and acclamations of the people, and with every demonstration of regard and affection. Sir Richard Gournay, Lord mayor, a man of great merit and authority, had promoted these favorable dispositions, and had engaged the populace, who so lately insulted the King, and who so soon afterwards made furious war upon him, to give him these marks of the most dutiful attachment. But all the pleasure, which he reaped from this joyful reception, was soon damped by the remonstrance of the commons, which was presented him, along with a petition of a like strain. The bad councils, which he followed, are there complained of; his concurrence in the Irish rebellion openly insinuated; the scheme, laid for the introduction of popery and superstition, inveighed against; and, for a remedy to all these evils, he is desired to entrust every office and command to persons, in whom his parliament should have cause to confide. By this phrase, which is so often repeated in all the memorials and addresses of that time, the commons meant themselves and their adherents.

As soon as the remonstrance of the commons was published, the King dispersed an answer to it. In this contest, he lay under mighty disadvantages. Not only the ears of the people were extremely prejudiced against him; the best

topics upon which he could justify, or at least apologize for his former conduct, were such as it was not safe nor prudent for him, at this time, to employ. So high was the national idolatry towards parliaments, that to blame the past conduct of these assemblies, had been very ill received by the generality of the people. So loud were the complaints against regal usurpations, that had the King asserted the prerogative of supplying, by his own authority, the deficiencies in government, arising from the obstinacy of parliaments, he would have increased the clamors, with which the whole nation already resounded. Charles, therefore, contented himself with observing, in general, that, even during that period, so much complained of, the people enjoyed a greater measure of happiness; not only comparatively, in respect of their neighbors, but even in respect of those times, which were justly accounted the most unfortunate. He made warm protestations of sincerity in the reformed religion; he promised indulgence to tender consciences with regard to the ceremonies of the church; he mentioned his great concessions with regard to national liberty: he blamed the infamous libels every where dispersed against his person and the national religion; he complained of the general reproaches, thrown out in the remonstrance, with regard to ill councils, tho' he had protected no minister from parliamentary justice, retained no unpopular servant, and conferred offices on no one, who enjoyed not a high character and estimation in the public. 'If notwithstanding this,' he adds, 'any malignant party shall take heart, and be willing to sacrifice the peace and happiness of their country, to their own sinister ends and ambition, under whatever pretence of religion and conscience; if they shall endeavor to lessen my reputation and interest, and to weaken my lawful power and authority; if they shall attempt, by discountenancing the present laws, to loosen the bands of government, that all disorder and confusion may break in upon us; I doubt not but God, in his good time, will discover them to me, and that the wisdom and courage of my high court of parliament will join with me in their suppression and punish-

ment.' Nothing shows more evidently the hard situation in which Charles was placed, than to observe, that he was obliged to confine himself within the limits of civility towards subjects, who had transgressed all bounds of regard, and even of good manners, in their treatment of their sovereign.

The first instance of those parliamentary encroachments, which Charles was now to look for, was the bill for pressing soldiers to the service of Ireland. This bill quickly passed the lower house. In the preamble, the king's power of pressing, a power exercised during all former times, was declared illegal, and contrary to the liberty of the subject. By a necessary consequence, the prerogative, which the crown had ever assumed, of obliging men to accept of any branch of public service, was abolished and annihilated: A prerogative, it must be owned, not very compatible with a limited monarchy. In order to elude this law, the King offered to raise 10,000 voluntiers for the Irish service: But the commons were afraid, lest such an army would be too much at his disposal. Charles, still unwilling to submit to so considerable a diminution of power, came to the house of peers, and offered to pass the law without the preamble; by which means, he said, that ill-timed question with regard to the prerogative would for the present be avoided, and the pretensions of each party to be left intire. Both houses took fire at this precipitant measure, which, from a similar instance, while the bill of attainder against Strafford was in dependance, Charles might foresee, would be received with resentment. By the lords, as well as commons, a vote passed, declaring it to be an high breach of privilege for the king to take notice of any bill, which was in agitation in either of the houses, or to express his sentiments with regard to it, before it be presented to him for his assent in a parliamentary manner. The King was obliged to compose all matters by an apology.

The general question, we may observe, with regard to privileges of parliament, has always been, and still continues, one of the greatest mysteries of the English constitu-

tion; and, in some respects, notwithstanding the accurate genius of that government, which we enjoy, these privileges are, at present, as undetermined, as were formerly the prerogatives of the crown. Such privileges as are founded on long precedent cannot be controverted: But tho' it were certain, that former kings had not, in any instance, taken notice of bills lying before the houses (which yet was not unusual); it follows not, merely from their never exerting such a power, that they had renounced it, or never were possessed of it. Such privileges too as are essential to all free assemblies, which deliberate, they may be allowed to assume, whatever precedents may prevail: But tho' the king's interposal, by an offer or advice, does, in some degree, overawe or restrain liberty; it may be doubted, whether it imposes such evident violence as to entitle the parliament, without any other authority or concession, to claim the privilege of excluding it. But this was the favorable time for extending privileges; and had none more exorbitant or unreasonable been challenged, few bad consequences had followed. The establishment of this rule, 'tis certain, contributes to the order and regularity, as well as freedom, of parliamentary proceedings.

The interposal of peers in the election of commoners was likewise, about this time, declared a breach of privilege; and continues ever since to be condemned by votes of the commons, and universally practised thro'out the nation.

Every measure pursued by the commons, and still more, every attempt made by their partizans, was full of the most inveterate hatred against the hierarchy, and showed a determined resolution of subverting the whole ecclesiastical establishment. Beside numberless vexations and persecutions which the clergy underwent from the arbitrary power of the lower house; while the King was in Scotland, the peers, having passed an order for the observance of the laws with regard to public worship, the commons assumed such authority, that, by a vote alone of their house, they suspended those laws, tho' enacted by the whole legislature: And they particularly forbade bowing at the name of J E S U S; a prac-

tice, which gave them the highest scandal, and which was one of their capital objections against the established religion. They complained of the King's filling five vacant sees, and considered it as an insult upon them, that he should compleat and strengthen an order, which they intended soon entirely to abolish.<sup>3</sup> They had accused thirteen bishops of high treason for enacting canons without consent of parliament; tho', from the foundation of the monarchy, no other method had ever been practised: And they now insisted, that the peers, upon this general accusation, should sequester those bishops from their seats in parliament, and commit them to prison. Their bill for taking the bishops' votes had, last winter, been rejected by the peers: But they again introduced the same bill, tho' no prorogation had interveened; and they endeavored, by some minute alterations, to elude that rule of parliament which opposed them. And when they sent up this bill to the lords, they made a demand, the most absurd in the world, that the bishops, being all of them parties, should be refused a vote with regard to that question. After the resolution was once formed by the commons, of invading the established government of church and state, it could not be expected, that their proceedings, in such a violent attempt, would thenceforth be altogether regular and equitable: But it must be confessed, that, in their attacks on the hierarchy, they still more openly transgressed all bounds of moderation; as supposing, no doubt, that the sacredness of the cause would sufficiently atone for employing means, the most irregular and unusual. This principle, which prevails so much among pious zealots, never displayed itself so openly, as during the transactions of this whole period.

But, notwithstanding all these efforts of the commons, they could not expect the concurrence of the upper house, either to this law, or to any other, which they should introduce for the farther limitation of royal authority. The majority of peers adhered to the King, and plainly foresaw the depression of nobility, as a necessary consequence of popu-

3. Nalson, Vol. II. p. 511.

lar usurpations on the crown. The insolence indeed, of the commons, and their haughty treatment of the lords, had already risen to a high pitch, and gave sufficient warning of their future attempts upon that order. They muttered somewhat of their regret, that they should be enforced to save the kingdom alone, and that the house of peers would have no part in the honor. Nay, they went so far as openly to tell the lords, 'That they themselves were the representative body of the whole kingdom, and that the peers were nothing but individuals, who held their seats in a particular capacity: And, therefore, if their lordships will not consent to the passing acts necessary for the preservation of the people, the commons, along with such of the lords as are more sensible of the danger, must join together, and represent the matter to his Majesty.' So violent was the democratical, enthusiastic spirit diffused thro'out the nation, that a total confusion of all ranks and orders was justly to be apprehended; and the wonder was not, that the majority of the nobles should seek shelter under the throne, but that any of them should venture to desert it. But the tide of popularity seized several, and carried them wide of all the most established maxims of civil policy. Among the opponents of the King are ranked the Earl of Northumberland, Lord Admiral, a man of the first family and fortune, and endowed with that dignified pride, which so well became his rank and station: The Earl of Essex, who inherited all his father's popularity, and having, from his early youth, sought renown in arms, united to a midling capacity that rigid inflexibility of honor, which forms the proper ornament of a nobleman and a soldier: The Lord Kimbolton, soon afterwards Earl of Manchester, a person distinguished by humanity, generosity, affability, and every amiable virtue. These men, finding that their credit ran very high with the nation, ventured to encourage those popular disorders, which, they vainly imagined, they possessed authority sufficient to regulate and control.

In order to obtain a majority in the upper house, the commons had recourse to the populace, who, on other occa-

sions, had done them such important services. Amid the greatest security, they affected continual fears of destruction to themselves and the nation, and seemed to quake at every breath or rumor of danger. They again excited the people by never-ceasing enquiries after conspiracies, by reports of insurrections, by feigned intelligence of invasions from abroad, by discoveries of dangerous combinations at home among papists and their adherents. When Charles dismissed the guard, which they had ordered during his absence, they complained; and upon his promising them a new guard, under the command of the Earl of Lindsey, they totally refused the offer, and were well pleased to insinuate, by this instance of jealousy, that their danger chiefly arose from the King himself.<sup>4</sup> They ordered halberts to be brought into the hall, where they assembled, and thus armed themselves against those conspiracies with which, they pretended, they were hourly threatened. No stories of plots were so ridiculous, that they were not willingly attended to, and dispersed among the multitude, to whose capacity they were well adapted. Beale, a taylor, informed the commons, that, walking in the fields, he had hearkened to the discourse of certain persons, unknown to him, and he had heard them talk of a most dangerous conspiracy. A hundred and eight ruffians, as he learned, had been appointed to murder a hundred and eight lords and commoners, and were promised rewards for these assassinations, ten pounds for each lord, forty shillings for each commoner. Upon this notable intelligence, orders were issued for seizing priests and jesuits, a conference was desired with the lords, and an ordinance of both houses was framed for putting the kingdom immediately into a posture of defence.<sup>5</sup>

The pulpits too were called in aid, and resounded with the dangers which threatened religion, from the desperate attempts of papists and malignants. Multitudes of people flocked towards Westminster, and insulted the prelates and such of the lords as adhered to the crown. The peers voted

4. Journ. 30th Nov. 1641.

5. Nalson, Vol. II. p. 646. Journ. 16th Nov. 1641.

a declaration against these tumults, and sent it to the other house; but these refused their concurrence.<sup>6</sup> Some seditious apprentices, being seized and committed to prison, immediately received their liberty, by an order of the commons. The sheriffs and justices having appointed constables with strong watches to guard the parliament; the commons sent for the constables, and required them to discharge the watches, conveened the justices, voted their orders a breach of privilege, and sent one of them to the tower.<sup>7</sup> Encouraged by these indications of their pleasure, the populace crowded about Whitehall, and threw out insolent menaces against the King himself. Several reformed officers and young gentlemen of the inns of court, during this time of disorder and danger, offered their services to his Majesty. Betwixt them and the populace, there passed frequent skirmishes, which ended not without bloodshed. By way of reproach, these gentlemen gave the rabble the appellation of **R O U N D - H E A D S**; on account of the short cropt hair, which they wore: These called the others **C A V A L I E R S**. And thus the nation, which was before sufficiently provided of religious as well as civil causes of quarrel, were also supplied with party-names, under which the factions might rendezvous and signalize their mutual hatred. Such propensity have mankind to discord and civil disorder, that names alone, without any opposition of interest or principles, will often be sufficient to excite them, at the hazard of their own lives, to seek the slaughter and destruction of their fellow-citizens.

Mean while, the tumults still continued, and even increased, about Westminster and Whitehall. The cry continually resounded against *bishops and rotten-hearted lords*. The former especially, being easily distinguishable by their habit, and being the object of violent hatred to all the sectaries, were exposed to the most dangerous insults. Williams, now created archbishop of Yorke, having been abused by the populace, hastily called a meeting of his brethren. By his advice, a protestation was drawn and addressed to the

6. Rushworth, Part III. Vol. I. p. 710.

7. Nalson, Vol. II. p. 792. Journ. 27, 28, and 29th of December 1641.

King and the house of lords. The bishops there set forth, that, tho' they had an undoubted right to sit and vote in parliament, yet, in coming thither, they had been menaced, assaulted, affronted, by the unruly multitude, and could no longer with safety attend their duty in the house. For this reason, they protested against all laws, votes, and resolutions, as null and invalid, which should pass during the time of their forced and violent absence. This protestation, which, tho' just and legal, was certainly very ill-timed, was signed by twelve bishops, and communicated to the King, who hastily approved of it. As soon as it was presented to the lords, that house desired a conference with the commons, where they informed them of this unexpected protestation. The opportunity was seized with joy and triumph. An impeachment of high treason was immediately sent up against the bishops, as endeavoring to subvert the fundamental laws, and to invalidate the authority of the whole legislature. They were, on the first demand, sequestred from parliament and committed to custody. No man, in either house, ventured to speak a word in their vindication; so much displeased was every one at the egregious imprudence of which they had been guilty. One person alone said, that he did not believe them guilty of high treason; but that they were stark mad, and therefore desired they might be sent to bedlam.

A few days afterwards, the King was guilty of another indiscretion, much more fatal: An indiscretion, to which all the ensuing disorders and civil wars ought, immediately and directly, to be ascribed. This was the impeachment of Lord Kimbolton and the five members.

When the commons employed, in their remonstrance, language so severe and indecent, they had not been actuated intirely by insolence and passion: Their views were much more solid and profound. They considered, That, in a violent attempt, such as an invasion of the antient constitution, the more leisure was afforded the people to reflect, the less would they be inclined to second that rash and dan-

gerous enterprize; that the peers would certainly refuse their concurrence, nor were there any hopes of prevailing on them but by exciting the populace to tumult and disorder; that the employing such odious means for so invidious an end would, at long-run, lose them all their popularity, and turn the tide of favor to the contrary party; and that, if the King only remained in tranquillity, and cautiously eluded the first violence of the tempest, he would, in the end, certainly prevail, and be able at least to preserve intire the antient laws and constitution. They were therefore resolved, if possible, to excite him to some violent passion; in hopes, that he would commit indiscretions, of which they might make advantage.

It was not long before they succeeded beyond their fondest wishes. Charles, enraged to find, That all his concessions but increased their demands; that the people, who were returning to a sense of duty towards him, were again roused to sedition and tumults; that the blackest calumnies were propagated against him, and even the Irish massacre ascribed to his councils and machinations; that a method of address was adopted, not only unfit towards so great a prince, but which no private gentleman could bear without resentment : When he considered all these increasing insolences in the commons, he was apt to ascribe them, in a great measure, to his own indolence and facility. The Queen and the ladies of the court farther stimulated his passion, and represented, that, if he exerted the vigor, and displayed the majesty of a monarch, the daring usurpations of his subjects would shrink before him. Lord Digby, a man of fine parts, but full of levity, and hurried on by precipitant passions, suggested like councils; and Charles, tho' commonly moderate in his temper, was ever disposed to hasty resolutions, gave way to the fatal importunity of his friends and servants.

Herbert, attorney-general, appeared in the house of peers, and, in his Majesty's name, entered an accusation of high treason against Lord Kimbolton and five commoners, Hollis, Sir Arthur Hazlerig, Hambden, Pym, and Strode.

The articles were, That they had traiterously endeavored to subvert the fundamental laws and government of the kingdom, to deprive the King of his regal power, and to impose on his subjects an arbitrary and tyrannical authority; that they had endeavored, by many foul aspersions on his Majesty and his government, to alienate the affections of his people, and make him odious to them; that they had attempted to draw his late army to disobedience of his royal commands, and to side with them in their traitorous designs; that they had invaded and encouraged a foreign power to invade the kingdom; that they had aimed at subverting the rights and very beings of parliament; that, in order to compleat their traitorous designs, they had endeavored, as far as in them lay, by force and terror to compell the parliament to join with them, and to that end, had actually raised and countenanced tumults against the King and parliament; and that they had traiterously conspired to levy and actually had levied war against the King.

The whole world stood amazed at this important accusation, so suddenly entered upon, without concert, deliberation, or reflection. Several of these articles of accusation, men said, to judge by the first aspect, seem to be common betwixt the impeached members and the parliament; nor did these persons appear any farther active, in the enterprizes, of which they were accused, than so far as they concurred with the majority in their votes and speeches. Tho' proofs might, perhaps, be produced of their privately inviting the Scotch to invade England; how could such an attempt be interpreted treason, after the act of oblivion, which had passed, and after that both houses, with the King's concurrence, had voted that nation three hundred thousand pounds for their brotherly assistance? While the house of peers are scarce able to support their independency, or refuse the bills sent them by the commons; will they ever be permitted by the populace, supposing them inclined, to pass a sentence, which must totally subdue the lower house, and put an end to their ambitious undertakings? These five members, at least Pym, Hambden and Hollis, are the very

heads of the popular party; and if these be taken off, what fate must be expected by their followers, who are all accomplices in the same treason? The punishment of leaders is ever the last triumph over a broken and routed party; but surely was never before attempted, in opposition to a faction, during the full tide of its power and success.

But men had not leisure to wonder at the extreme indiscretion of this measure: Their astonishment was excited by new attempts, still more precipitant and imprudent. A sergeant at arms, in the king's name, demanded of the house the five members; and was sent back without any positive answer. Messengers were employed to search for them, and arrest them. Their trunks, chambers, and studies were sealed and locked. The house voted all these violences to be a breach of privilege, and commanded every one to defend the liberty of the members. The King, irritated by all this opposition, resolved next day to come in person to the house, with an intention to demand, perhaps seize in their presence, the persons, whom he had accused.

This strange resolution, so incompatible with the majesty of a king, so improper even for the dignity of any great magistrate, was discovered to the Countess of Carlisle, sister to Northumberland, a lady of great spirit, wit, and intrigue. She privately sent intelligence to the five members, and they had time to withdraw, a moment before the King entered. He was accompanied with his ordinary retinue to the number of above two hundred, armed as usual, some with halbersts, some with walking swords. The King left them at the door, and he himself advanced alone thro' the hall; while all the members stood up to receive him. The speaker withdrew from his chair, and the King took possession of it. The speech, which he made was as follows; 'Gentlemen, I am sorry for this occasion of coming to you. Yesterday, I sent a serjeant at arms to demand some, who, by my order, were accused of high treason. Instead of obedience, I received a message. I must here declare to you, that, tho' no king, that ever was in England, could be more careful of your privileges than I shall be, yet in cases of treason, no person has

privilege. Therefore, am I come to tell you, that I must have these men wheresoever I can find them. Well, since I see all the birds are flown, I do expect, that you will send them to me as soon as they return. But I assure you, on the word of a king, I never did intend any force, but shall proceed against them in a fair and legal way: For I never meant any other. And now since I see I cannot do what I came for, I think this no unfit occasion to repeat what I have said formerly, that whatever I have done in favor and to the good of my subjects, I do intend to maintain it.'

When the King was looking about for the accused members, he asked the speaker, who stood below, whether any of these persons were in the house? The speaker, falling on his knee, very prudently replied: 'I have, Sir, neither eyes to see, nor tongue to speak in this place, but as the house is pleased to direct me, whose servant I am. And I humbly ask pardon, that I cannot give any other answer to what your Majesty is pleased to demand of me.'

The commons were in the utmost disorder, and when the King was departing some members cried aloud, so as he might hear them, *Privilege! Privilege!* And the house immediately adjourned till next day.

That evening, the accused members, in order to mark the greater apprehension, removed into the city, which was their fortress. The citizens were, the whole night, in arms. Some people, who were appointed for that purpose, or perhaps actuated by their own terrors, ran from gate to gate, crying out, that the cavaliers were coming to fire the city, and that the King himself was at the head of them.

Next morning, Charles sent to the mayor, and ordered him to call a common council immediately. About ten o'clock, he himself, attended only by three or four lords, went to Guild-hall. He told the council, That he was sorry to hear of the apprehensions entertained of him; that he was come to them without any guard, in order to show how much he relied on their affections; that he had accused certain men of high treason, against whom he would proceed in a legal way, and therefore presumed, that they would receive no

shelter in the city. After many other gracious expressions, he told one of the sheriffs, who of the two was esteemed the least inclined to his service, that he would dine with him. He departed the hall without receiving the applause which he expected. In passing thro' the streets, he heard the cry, *Privilege of parliament! privilege of parliament!* resounding from all quarters. One of the populace, more insolent than the rest, drew nigh to his coach, and called out with a loud voice, *To your tents, O Israel!* the words employed by the mutinous Israelites, when they abandoned Rehoboam, their rash and ill-counselled sovereign.

When the house of commons met, they affected the greatest dismay and terror; and adjourning for some days, ordered a committee to sit in merchant-taylor's hall in the city. The committee made an exact inquiry into each circumstance attending the King's entry into the house. Every passionate speech, every menacing gesture of any, even the meanest, of his attendants, were recorded and aggravated. An intention of offering violence to the parliament, of seizing the accused members in the very house, and of murdering all who should make resistance, was inferred. And that unparalleled breach of privilege, for so it was called, was still ascribed to the councils of papists and their adherents. This expression, which recurs every moment in speeches and memorials, and which, at present, is so apt to excite laughter in the reader, begot, at that time, the deepest consternation thro'out the kingdom.

A letter was pretended to be intercepted, and was communicated to the committee, who pretended to lay great weight upon it. One catholic there congratulates another on the accusation of the members; and represents that event as a branch of the same pious contrivance, which had excited the Irish insurrection, and by which the profane heretics would soon be extirpated thro'out the whole nation.<sup>8</sup>

The house met; and after confirming the votes of their committee, instantly adjourned, as if exposed to the most imminent perils from the violence of their enemies. This

8. Nalson, Vol. II. p. 856.

practice they continued for some time. When the people, by these affected panics, were wrought up to a sufficient degree of rage and terror, it was thought proper, that the accused members, with a triumphant and military procession, should take their seats in the house. The Thames was covered with boats and other vessels, laden with small pieces of ordinance, and prepared for fight. Skippon, whom the parliament, by their own authority, had appointed major-general of the city-militia, conducted the members, at the head of this tumultuary army, to Westminster-hall. And when the populace, by land and by water, passed Whitehall, with insulting shouts, they still asked; *What has become of the King and his cavaliers? And whither are they fled?*

The King, apprehensive of danger from the enraged multitude, had retired to Hampton-court, deserted by all the world, and overwhelmed with grief, shame, and remorse, for the fatal measures, into which he had been hurried. His deplorable situation he could no longer ascribe to the rigors of destiny, or the malignity of enemies: His own precipitancy and indiscretion must bear the blame of whatever disasters should henceforth befall him. The most faithful of his adherents, betwixt sorrow and indignation, were confounded with reflections on what had happened, and what was likely to follow. Seeing every prospect blasted, faction triumphant, the discontented populace enflamed to a degree of fury, they utterly despaired of success, in a cause, to whose ruin, friends and enemies seemed equally to conspire.

The prudence of the King's conduct, in such a juncture, no body pretended to justify. The legality of it met with many apologies; tho' generally offered to unwilling ears. No maxim of law, it was said, is more established, or more universally allowed, than that privileges of parliament extend not to treason, felony, or breach of peace; nor has either house, during former ages, ever pretended, in any of those cases, to interpose in behalf of its members. Tho' some inconveniences should result from the observance of this maxim; that would not be sufficient, without other authority, to abolish a principle, established by uninterrupted

precedent, and founded on the tacit consent of the whole legislature. But what are the inconveniences so much dreaded? The King, under pretext of treason, may seize any members of the opposite faction, and, for a time, gain to his partizans the majority of votes. But if he seize only a few; will he not lose more friends, by such a gross artifice, than he confines enemies? If he seize a great number; is not this expedient force, open and bare-faced? And what remedy, in all times, against such force, but to oppose to it a force, which is superior? Even allowing, that the King intended to employ violence, not authority, for seizing the members; tho', at that time, and ever afterwards, he positively asserted the contrary; yet will his conduct admit of excuse. That the hall, where the parliament assembles, is an inviolable sanctuary, was never yet pretended. And if the commons complain of the affront offered them, by an attempt to arrest their members in their very presence; they ought only to complain of themselves, who had formerly refused compliance with the King's message, when he peaceably demanded these members. The sovereign is the great executor of the law; and his presence was here legally employed, both in order to prevent opposition, and to protect the house against those insults which their disobedience had so well merited.<sup>9</sup>

9. 'In a parliament of Queen Elizabeth, when Sir Edward Coke was speaker, the Queen sent a messenger or serjeant at arms into the house of commons, and took out Mr Morrice, and committed him to prison with divers others, for some speeches spoken in the house. Thereupon Mr Wroth moved the house, that they would be humble suitors to her Majesty, that she would be pleased to enlarge those members of the house that were restrained, which was done accordingly. And answer was sent by her privy council, That her Majesty had committed them for causes best known to herself; and to press her Highness with this suit, would but hinder the whole good they fought: That the house must not call the Queen to an account for what she doth of her royal authority: That the causes, for which they are restrained, may be high and dangerous: That her Majesty liketh no such questions, neither doth it become the house to search into matters of that nature.' See Inspection into the carriage of the late long parliament, p. 61.

Charles knew to how little purpose he would urge these reasons against the present fury of the commons. He proposed, therefore, by a message, that they should agree upon a legal method, by which he might carry on his prosecution against the members, lest further misunderstandings happen with regard to privileges. They desired him to lay the grounds of accusation before the house; and pretended, that they must first judge, whether it were proper to abandon their members to a legal trial. The King then informed them, that he would wave, for the present, all prosecution: By successive messages, he afterwards offered a pardon to the members; offered to concur in any law, which would acquit or secure them; offered any reparation to the house for the breach of privilege, of which, he acknowledged, they had reason to complain. They were resolved to accept of no satisfaction, unless he would discover his advisers in that illegal measure: A condition, to which, they knew, without rendering himself for ever vile and contemptible, he could not possibly submit. Mean while, they continued to thunder against the violation of parliamentary privileges, and, by their violent outcries, to inflame the whole nation. Their secret reason of displeasure, however obvious, they carefully concealed. In the King's accusation of the members, they plainly saw his judgment of the late parliamentary proceedings; and every member of the ruling faction dreaded the same fate, should royal authority be re-established in its antient lustre. By the most unhappy conduct, Charles, while he extremely augmented, in his opponents, the will, had also encreased the ability, of hurting him.

In order farther to excite the people, whose dispositions were already very seditious, the expedient of petitioning was renewed. A petition from the county of Buckingham was presented by six thousand men; who promised to live and die in defence of the privileges of parliament. The city of London, the county of Essex, that of Hertford, Surrey, Berks, imitated this example. A petition from the apprentices was graciously received. Nay one was encouraged from

the porters; whose numbers amounted, as they said, to fifteen thousand. The address of that great body contained the same articles with all the others; the privileges of parliament, the danger of religion, the rebellion of Ireland, the decay of trade. The porters further desired, that justice might be done upon offenders, as the atrocity of their crimes had deserved. And they added, *That if such remedies were any longer suspended, they would be forced to extremities not fit to be named, and make good the saying, That necessity has no law.*

Another petition was presented by several poor people, in the name of many thousands more; where the petitioners proposed as a remedy for the public miseries, *That those noble worthies of the house of peers, who concur with the happy votes of the commons, may separate themselves from the rest, and sit and vote, as one intire body.* The commons gave thanks for this petition.

The very women were seized with the same rage. A brewer's wife, followed by many thousands of her sex, brought a petition to the house; in which the petitioners expressed their terror of the papists and prelates, and their dread of like massacres, rapes, and outrages, with those which had been exercised upon their sex in Ireland. They had been necessitated, they said, to imitate the example of the woman of Tekoah: And they asserted equal right with the men, of declaring, by petition, their sense of the public cause; because Christ had purchased them at as dear a rate, and in the free enjoyment of Christ consists equally the happiness of both sexes. Pym came to the door of the house; and having told the female zealots, that their petition was thankfully accepted, and was presented in a seasonable time, he begged, that their prayers for the success of the commons might follow their petition. Such low arts of popularity were affected! And by such illiberal cant were the unhappy people incited to civil discord and convulsions!

All petitions, in the mean time, which favored the church or monarchy, from whatever hand they came, were not only discouraged; but the petitioners were sent for, imprisoned,

and prosecuted as delinquents: And this unequal conduct was openly avowed and justified. Whoever desire a change, it was said, must express their inclination; for how, otherwise, shall it be known? But those who favor the established government in church or state, should not petition; because they already enjoy what they wish for.<sup>10</sup>

The King had possessed a very great party in the lower house, as appeared in the vote for the remonstrance; and this party, had every new cause of disgust been carefully avoided, would soon have become the majority; from the odium attending the violent measures employed by the popular leaders. A great majority he always possessed in the house of peers, even after the bishops were confined or chased away; and this majority could not have been overcome but by outrages, which, in the end, would have drawn disgrace and ruin on those who incited them. By the present fury of the people, as by an inundation, were all these obstacles swept away, and every rampart of royal authority laid level with the ground. The victory was pursued with impetuosity by the sagacious commons, who knew the importance of a favorable moment in all popular commotions. The terror of their authority they extended over the whole nation; and all opposition, and even all blame vented in familiar discourse, were treated as the most atrocious crimes, by these severe inquisitors. Scarcely was it permitted to find fault with the conduct of any particular member, if he made a figure in the house; and reflections, thrown out on Pym, were, at this time, treated as breaches of privilege. The rabble without doors were ready to execute, from the least hint, the will of their leaders; nor was it safe for any member to approach either house, who pretended to control or oppose the popular torrent. After so undisguised a manner was the violence conducted, that Hollis, in a speech to the peers, desired to know the names of such members, as should vote contrary to the sentiments of the commons:<sup>11</sup> And Pym said in the lower house, that the people

10. Clarendon.

11. King's Declar, of 12th of August, 1642.

must not be restrained in the expressions of their just desires.<sup>12</sup>

By the flight, or terror, or despondency of the King's party, an undisputed majority remained every where to their opponents; and the bills sent up by the commons, which had hitherto stopped with the peers, and would certainly have been rejected, now passed, and were presented for the royal assent. These were, The pressing bill with its preamble, and the bill against the bishops' votes. The King's authority was at that time reduced to the lowest ebb. The Queen too, being secretly threatened with an impeachment, and finding no resource in her husband's protection, was preparing to retire into Holland. The rage of the people, on account of her religion, as well as her spirit and activity, was universally levelled against her. Usage, the most ignominious, she had hitherto borne with a secret indignation. The commons, in their fury against priests, had seized her very confessor; nor would they release him upon her repeated applications. Even a visit of the Prince to his mother had been openly complained of, and remonstrances against it had been presented to her. Apprehensive of attacks still more violent, she was desirous of facilitating her escape; and she prevailed with the King to pass these bills, in hopes of appeasing, for a time, the rage of the multitude.

These new concessions, however important, the King immediately found to have no other effect, than had all the preceding ones: They were made the foundation of demands still more exorbitant. From the facility of his disposition, from the impotence of his situation, the commons believed, that he could now refuse them nothing. And they regarded the least moment of relaxation, in their invasion of royal authority, as highly impolitic, during the uninterrupted torrent of their successes. The very moment they were informed of these last acquisitions, they affronted the Queen, by opening some intercepted letters wrote to her by Lord Digby: They carried up an impeachment against Herbert, attorney-general, for obeying his master's com-

12. *Ibid.*

mands in accusing their members: And they prosecuted with fresh vigor their plan of the militia, on which they reposed all future hopes of an uncontrololed authority.

Monarchical government, which, during so many ages, had been established in England, the commons were sensible, would soon regain some degree of its former dignity, after the present tempest was overblown; nor would all their new invented limitations be able totally to suppress an authority, to which the nation had ever been accustomed. The sword alone, to which all human ordinances must submit, could guard their acquired power, and fully ensure to them personal safety against the rising indignation of their sovereign. This point, therefore, became the chief object of their aims. To the town of Hull, where a large magazine of arms was placed, they dispatched Sir John Hotham, a gentleman of considerable fortune in the neighborhood, and of a very ancient family; and gave him the authority of governor. They sent orders to Goring, who commanded in Portsmouth, to obey no commands but such as he should receive from the parliament. Not contented with having obliged the King to displace Lunsford, whom he had made governor of the tower; they never ceased solliciting him till he had also displaced Sir John Biron, a man of unexceptionable character; and had bestowed that command on Sir John Conyers, in whom alone, they said, they could repose confidence. By a bold and decisive stroke, they now resolved at once to seize the whole power of the sword, and to confer it intirely on their own creatures and adherents.

The severe votes, passed in the beginning of this parliament, against lieutenants and their deputies, for exercising powers assumed by all their predecessors, had totally disarmed the crown, and had not left in any magistrate military authority sufficient for the defence and security of the nation. To remedy this inconvenience now appeared necessary. An ordinance was introduced and passed the two houses, which restored to lieutenants and deputies the same powers, of which the votes of the commons had bereaved them; but at the same time, the names of all the lieu-

tenants were inserted in the ordinance; and these consisted intirely of men, in whom the parliament could confide. And for their conduct, they were accountable, by the express terms of the ordinance, not to the King, but to the parliament.

The policy, pursued by the commons, and which had hitherto succeeded to admiration, was to astonish the King by the boldness of their enterprizes, to intermingle no sweetness with their severity, to employ expressions no less violent than their pretensions, and to make the King sensible what little estimation they made either of his person or his dignity. To a bill, so destructive of royal authority, with an insolence seemingly wanton, they prefixed a preamble, equally dishonorable to the personal character of the King. These are the words: ‘Whereas there has been of late a most dangerous and desperate design upon the house of commons, which we have just cause to believe an effect of the bloody councils of papists and other ill-affected persons, who have already raised a rebellion in the kingdom of Ireland. And whereas, by reason of many discoveries, we cannot fear they will proceed, not only to stir up the like rebellions and insurrections in this kingdom of England; but also to back them with forces from abroad, &c.’<sup>13</sup>

Here Charles first ventured to put a stop to his concessions; and that not by a refusal, but a delay. When this demand was made; a demand, which, if granted, the commons justly regarded as the last they should ever have occasion to make; he was at Dover, attending the Queen and the Princess of Orange in their embarkation. He replied that he had not now leisure to consider a matter of so great importance, and must therefore respite his answer, till his return. The parliament instantly dispatched another message to him, with sollicitations still more importunate. They expressed their great grief at his Majesty’s answer to their just and necessary petition. They represented, that any delay, during dangers and distractions so great and pressing, was equally unsatisfactory and destructive as an absolute

13. Rushworth, part 3. vol. i. chap. 4.

denial. They insisted, that a measure, so necessary for public safety, it was their duty to see put in execution. And they affirmed, that the people, in many counties, had applied to them for that purpose, and, in some places, were, of themselves and by their own authority, providing against those urgent dangers, with which they were threatened.<sup>14</sup>

Even after this insolence, the King durst not venture upon a flat denial. Beside excepting to the preamble, which threw such dishonor upon him, and protesting the innocence of his intentions, when he entered the house of commons; he only desired, that the military authority, if it was defective, should first be conferred upon the crown; and he promised to bestow commissions, but such as would be revokeable at pleasure, on the very same persons, whom the parliament had named in the ordinance. By a former message, he had expressed his wishes, that they should lay before him, in one view, all the demands, which they esteemed requisite for the settlement of the nation. They pretended, that they were exposed to perils, so dreadful and imminent, that they had not leisure for such a work. The expedient, proposed by the King, seemed a sufficient remedy during this emergence; and yet preserved the prerogative of the crown, intire and unbroken.

But the intentions of the commons were very wide of this purpose, and their panics could be cured by one remedy alone. They instantly replied, that the dangers and distempers of the nation were such as would endure no longer delay; and unless the King speedily complied with their demands, they would be inforced, for the safety of the King and kingdom, to dispose of the militia by the authority of both houses, and were resolved to do it accordingly. They asserted, that those parts of the kingdom, which have, from their own authority, put themselves in a posture of defence during these prevailing jealousies and fears, have acted suitable to the declarations and directions of both houses, and conformable to the laws of the kingdom. And while they thus menaced the King with their power, they

14. Id. ibid.

invited him to fix his residence at London, where, they knew, he would be intirely at mercy.<sup>15</sup>

'I am so much amazed at this message,' said the King in his prompt reply, 'that I know not what to answer. You speak of jealousies and fears! lay your hands on your hearts and ask yourselves, whether I may not likeways be disturbed with fears and jealousies: And if so, I assure you, that this message has nothing lessened them.'

'As to the militia, I thought so much of it before I gave that answer, and am so much assured, that the answer is agreeable to what in justice or reason you can ask, or I in honor grant, that I shall not alter it in any point.'

'For my residence near you, I wish it might be safe and honorable, and that I had no cause to absent myself from Whitehall: Ask yourselves whether I have not.'

'What would you have? Have I violated your laws? Have I denied to pass any bill for the ease and security of my subjects? I do not ask, what you have done for me.'

'Have any of my people been transported with fears and apprehensions? I offer as free and generous a pardon as yourselves can devise. All this considered, there is a judgment of heaven upon this nation, if these distractions continue.'

'God so deal with me and mine as all my thoughts and intentions are upright for the maintenance of the true protestant profession, and for the observance and preservation of the laws; and I hope God will bless and assist those laws for *my* preservation.'

No sooner did the commons despair of obtaining the King's consent to their ordinance, than they instantly voted; That those who advised his Majesty's answer were enemies to the state and mischievous projectors against the defence of the nation; that this denial is of that dangerous consequence, that, if his Majesty persist in it, it will hazard the peace and safety of all his kingdoms, unless some speedy remedy be applied by the wisdom and authority of both houses; and that such of the subjects as have put themselves

15. Rushworth, part 3. vol. i. chap. 4.

in a posture of defence against the common danger, have done nothing but what is justifiable, and approved by the house.<sup>16</sup>

Lest the people, who, in no instance, had ever seen any authority of parliament exerted without the concurrence of the king, might be averse to the seconding all these usurpations, they were plied with rumors of danger, with the terrors of invasion, with the dread of the English and Irish papists; and the most unaccountable panics were spred thro'out the nation. Lord Digby, having entered Kingston with a coach and six, attended with a few livery-servants, the intelligence was conveyed to London; and it was immediately voted, that he had appeared in a hostile manner to the terror and affright of his Majesty's subjects, and had levied war against the King and kingdom.<sup>17</sup> Petitions from all quarters loudly demanded of the parliament to put the nation in a posture of defence; and the county of Stafford in particular expressed such dread of an insurrection among the papists, that every man, they said, was constrained to stand upon his guard, not even daring to go to church unarmed.<sup>18</sup>

That the same violence, by which he had so long been oppressed, might not still reach him, and extort his consent to the dishonorable and pernicious ordinance of the militia, Charles had resolved to remove farther from London: And accordingly, taking the Prince of Wales and the Duke of Yorke along with him, he arrived, by slow journeys, at Yorke, which he was determined, for some time, to make the place of his residence. The distant parts of the kingdom, being removed from that furious vortex of new principles and opinions, which had transported the capital, still retained a sincere regard for the church and monarchy; and the King here found marks of attachment beyond what he had before expected. From all quarters of England, the prime nobility and gentry, either personally or by messages

16. Rushworth, part 3. vol. i. chap. 4.

17. Clarendon, Rushworth, part 3. vol. i. chap. 2. p. 495.

18. Dugdale, p. 89.

and letters, expressed their duty towards him; and exhorted him to save himself and them from that ignominious slavery, with which they were threatened. The small interval of time, which had passed since the fatal accusation of the members, had been sufficient to open the eyes of many, and recover them from the astonishment, with which, at first, they had been seized. One rash and passionate attempt of the King seemed but a small counterpoize to so many acts of deliberate violence, which had been offered to him and every other branch of the legislature. And however sweet the sound of liberty, many resolved to adhere to that moderate freedom, transmitted them from their ancestors, and now better secured by such important concessions; rather than, by engaging in a giddy search after greater independence, run a manifest risque, either of incurring a cruel subjection, or abandoning all law and order.

Charles, finding himself supported by a considerable party in the kingdom, began to speak in a firmer tone, and to retort the accusations of the commons with a vigor, which he had never before exerted. Notwithstanding all their remonstrances, and menaces, and insults, he still persisted in refusing the militia-ordinance; and they proceeded to frame a new ordinance, in which, by the authority of the two houses, without the King's consent, they named lieutenants for all the counties, and conferred on them the command of the whole military force, the whole guards, garrisons, and forts of the kingdom. He issued proclamations against this manifest usurpation; the most precipitant and most enormous, of which there is any instance in the English history: And, as he professed a resolution strictly to observe the law himself, so was he determined, he said, to oblige every other person to pay it a like obedience. The name of the king was so essential to all laws, and so familiar in all acts of executive authority, that the parliament were afraid, had they totally omitted it, that the innovation would be too sensible to the people. In all commands, therefore, which they conferred, they bound the persons to obey the orders of his Majesty, signified by both houses of parliament. And, in-

venting a distinction, hitherto unheard of, betwixt the office and the person of the king; those very forces, which they employed against him, they levied in his name and by his authority.

'Tis remarkable how much the topics of argument were now reversed betwixt the parties. The King, while he acknowledged his former error, of employing a pretext of necessity, in order to infringe the laws and constitution, warned the parliament not to imitate an example, on which they threw such violent blame: And the parliament, while they clothed their personal fears or ambition under the appearance of national and imminent danger, made unknowingly an apology for the most exceptionable part of the King's conduct. That the liberties of the people were no longer exposed to any peril from royal authority, so narrowly circumscribed, so exactly defined, so unsupported by revenue and by military power, might be maintained upon very plausible topics: But that the danger, allowing it to have any existence, was not of that kind; great, urgent, inevitable; which dissolves all law and levels all limitations, seems apparent from the simplest view of these transactions. So obvious indeed was the King's present inability to invade the constitution, that the fears and jealousies, which operated on the people, and pushed them so furiously to arms, were undoubtedly, not of a civil, but of a religious nature. The distempered imaginations of men were agitated with a continual dread of popery, with a horror for prelacy, with an antipathy to ceremonies and the liturgy, and with a violent affection for whatever was most opposite to these objects of aversion. The fanatical spirit, let loose, confounded all regards to ease, safety, interest; and dissolved every moral and civil obligation.

The great courage and conduct, displayed by many of the popular leaders, have commonly inclined men to do them, in one respect, more honor than they deserve, and to suppose, that, like able politicians, they employed pretexts, which they secretly despised, in order to serve their selfish purposes. 'Tis however probable, if not certain, that they were,

generally speaking, the dupes of their own zeal. Hypocrisy, quite pure and free from fanaticism, is perhaps as rare, as fanaticism intirely purged from all mixture of hypocrisy. So congenial to the human mind are religious sentiments, that, where the temper is not guarded by a philosophical scepticism, the most cool and determined, it is impossible to counterfeit long these holy fervors, without feeling some share of the assumed warmth: And on the other hand, so precarious and temporary is the operation of these supernatural views, that the religious extasies, if constantly employed, must often be counterfeit, and must ever be warped by those more familiar motives of interest and ambition, which insensibly gain upon the mind. This indeed seems the key to most of the celebrated characters of that age. Equally full of fraud and of ardor, these pious patriots talked perpetually of seeking the Lord, yet still pursued their own purposes; and have left a memorable lesson to posterity, how delusive, how destructive that principle is, by which they were animated.

Each party was now willing to throw on its antagonist the odium of commencing a civil war; but both of them prepared for an event, which they deemed inevitable. To gain the people's favor and good opinion was the chief point on both sides. Never was there a people less corrupted by vice, and more actuated by principle, than the English during that period: Never did the nation possess more capacity, more courage, more public spirit, more disinterested zeal. The infusion of one ingredient in too large a proportion had corrupted all these noble principles, and converted them into the most virulent poison. To determine his choice in the approaching contests, every man hearkened with avidity to the reasons, proposed on both sides. The war of the pen preceded that of the sword, and daily sharpened the humors of the opposite parties. Beside private adventurers without number, the King and parliament themselves carried on the controversy, by messages, remonstrances, and declarations, where the nation was really the party, to whom all arguments were addressed. Charles had here a double

advantage. Not only his cause was more favorable, as supporting the antient government of church and state, against the most illegal pretensions: It was also defended with more art and eloquence. Lord Falkland had accepted of the office of secretary; a man, who adorned the purest virtue, with the richest gifts of nature, with the most valuable acquisitions of learning. By him, assisted by the King himself, were the memorials of the royal party chiefly composed. So sensible was Charles of his superiority in this particular, that he took care to disperse every where the papers of the parliament along with his own, that the people might be the more enabled, by comparison, to form a judgment betwixt them: The parliament, while they distributed copies of their own, were anxious to suppress all the King's compositions.

To clear up the principles of the constitution, to mark the boundaries of the powers entrusted by law to the several members, to show what great improvements the whole political system had received from the King's late concessions, to demonstrate his intire confidence in his people and his reliance on their affections, to point out the ungrateful returns which had been made him, and the enormous encroachments, insults, and indignities, to which he had been exposed; these were the topics, which, with so much justness of reasoning and propriety of expression, were insisted on in the King's declarations and remonstrances.<sup>19</sup>

19. In some of these declarations, supposed to be penned by Lord Falkland, is found the first regular definition of the constitution, according to our present ideas of it, that occurs in any English composition; at least any, published by authority. The three species of government, monarchical, aristocratical, and democratical, are there plainly distinguished, and the English government is expressly said to be none of them pure, but all of them mixed and tempered together. This style, tho' the sense of it was implied in many institutions, no former king of England would have used, and no subject would have been permitted to use. Banks and the crown-lawyers against Hambden, in the case of ship-money, insist plainly and openly on the king's absolute and sovereign power: And the opposite lawyers do not deny it: They only assert, that the subjects have also a fundamental property in their goods, and that no part of them can be taken but by their own consent in parliament. But that the parliament was

Tho' these writings were of consequence, and tended much to reconcile the nation to Charles, it was evident, that they would not be decisive, and that keener weapons must determine the controversy. To the ordinance of the parliament concerning the militia, the King opposed his commissions of array. The counties obeyed the one or the other, according as they stood affected. And in many counties, where the people were divided, mobbish combats and skirmishes ensued. The parliament on this occasion, went so far as to vote, 'That, when the lords and commons in parliament, which is the supreme court of judicature, shall declare what the law of the land is, to have this not only questioned, but contradicted, is a high breach of their privileges.' This was a plain assuming the whole legislative authority, and exerting it in the most material article, the government of the militia. Upon the same principles, the King's negative voice in passing of laws, by a verbal criticism on the tense of a Latin verb, they pretended to ravish from him.

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instituted to check and control the king, and share the supreme power, would, in all former times, have been esteemed very blunt and indiscreet, if not illegal, language. We need not be surprized, that governments should long continue, tho' the boundaries of authority, in their several branches, be implicite, confused, and undetermined. This is the case all over the world. Who can draw an exact line betwixt the spiritual and temporal powers in catholic states? What code ascertained the precise authority of the Roman senate, in every occurrence? Perhaps, the English is the first mixt government, where the authority of every part has been very accurately defined: And yet there still remain many very important questions, betwixt the two houses, that, by common consent, are buried in a discreet silence. The king's power is, indeed, more exactly limited; but this period, of which we now treat, is the time, at which that accuracy commenced. And it appears from Warwic and Hobbs, that many royalists blamed this philosophical precision in the King's penman, and thought that the veil was very imprudently taken off the mysteries of government. 'Tis certain, that liberty reaped mighty advantages from these controversies and inquiries; and the royal authority too became more secure, within those provinces, which were assigned to it.

The magazine of Hull contained the arms of all the forces levied against the Scotch; and Sir John Hotham, the governor, tho' he had accepted of a commission from the parliament, was not esteemed much disaffected to the church and monarchy. Charles, therefore, was hopeful, that, if he presented himself at Hull before the commencement of hostilities, Hotham, overawed by his presence, would admit him with his retinue; after which he would easily render himself master of the place. But the governor was on his guard. He shut the gates, and refused to receive the King, who desired leave to enter with twenty persons only. Charles immediately proclaimed him traitor, and complained to the parliament of his disobedience. The parliament avowed, and justified the action.

The county of Yorke formed a guard to the King of 600 men: For the kings of England had hitherto lived among their subjects like fathers among their children, and had derived all their security from the dignity of their character and from the protection of the laws. The two houses, tho' they had already levied a guard for themselves; had attempted to seize all the military power, all the navy, and all the forts of the kingdom; had openly employed their authority in every species of warlike preparation: Yet immediately voted, 'That the King, seduced by wicked council, intended to make war against his parliament, who, in all their consultations and actions, had proposed no other end, but the care of his kingdoms, and the performance of all duty and loyalty to his person; that this attempt was a breach of the trust reposed in him by his people, contrary to his oath, and tending to a dissolution of the government; and that whoever should assist him in such a war, were traitors by the fundamental laws of the kingdom.'

The armies, which they had been every where levying under pretext of Ireland, the parliament henceforth more openly enlisted for their own purposes, and gave the command of them to the Earl of Essex. In London no less than four thousand men enlisted in one day.<sup>20</sup> And the parliament

20. Vicar's God in the mount.

voted a declaration, which they required every member to subscribe, that they would live and die with their general.

They issued orders for bringing in loans of money and plate, in order to maintain forces, which should defend the king and both houses of parliament: For this style they still preserved. Within ten days, vast quantities of plate were brought into their treasurers. Hardly were there men enough to receive it, or room sufficient to lay it. And many with regret were obliged to carry back their offerings, and wait till the treasurers could find leisure to receive them. Such zeal animated the pious partizans of the parliament, especially in the city! The women parted with all the plate and ornaments of their houses, and even with their silver thimbles and bodkins, in order to support the *Good cause* against the malignants.

Meanwhile the splendor of the Nobility, with which the King was environed, much eclipsed the appearance at Westminster. The Lord keeper, Littleton, had fled to Yorke, and sent the great seal before him. Above forty peers of the first rank attended the King; while the house of lords seldom consisted of more than sixteen members. Near the moiety too of the lower house absented themselves from councils, which they esteemed so full of danger. The commons sent up an impeachment against nine peers, for deserting their duty in parliament. Their own members also, who should return to them, they voted not to admit, till satisfied concerning the reason of their absence.

To the peers, who attended him, Charles made a declaration, that he expected from them no obedience to any commands, which were not warranted by the laws of the land. Those peers answered this declaration by a protest, where they declared their resolution to obey no commands, but such as were warranted by that authority. By these deliberate engagements, so worthy of an English prince and English nobility, they meant to confound the furious and tumultuary resolutions taken by the parliament.

The Queen, disposing of the crown-jewels in Holland, had been enabled to purchase a large cargo of arms and ammu-

nition. Part of these, after escaping many perils, arrived safely to the King. His preparations were not near so forward as those of the parliament. In order to remove all jealousy, he had resolved, that their usurpations and illegal pretensions should be apparent to the whole world, and thought, that, to recover the confidence of his people, was a point much more material to his interest, than the collecting any magazines, stores, or armies, which might breed apprehensions of violent or illegal councils. But the urgent necessity of his situation no longer admitted of delay. He now prepared himself for defence. With a spirit, activity, and address, which neither the one party apprehended, nor the other expected, he employed all the advantages, which remained to him, and rouzed up his adherents to arms. The resources of this Prince's genius increased in proportion to his difficulties; and he never appeared greater than when plunged into the deepest perils and distresses. From the mixt character, indeed, of Charles arose, in part, the misfortunes, in which England was, at this time, involved. His great political errors had raised him inveterate enemies: His eminent moral virtues had procured him zealous partizans: And betwixt the hatred of the one and the affections of the other was the nation agitated with the most violent convulsions.

That the King might despair of all composition, the parliament sent him the conditions, on which they were willing to come to agreement. Their demands, contained in nineteen propositions, amounted to a total abolition of monarchical authority. They required, That no man should remain in the council, who was not agreeable to parliament; that no deed of the king's should have validity, unless it passed the council, and was attested under their hand; that all the officers of state should be chosen with consent of parliament; that none of the royal family should marry without consent of parliament or council; that the laws should be executed against catholics; that the votes of popish lords should be excluded; that the reformation of the liturgy and church-government should have place, accord-

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ing to advice of parliament; that the ordinance, with regard to the militia, be submitted to; that the justice of parliament may pass upon all delinquents; that a general pardon be granted with such exceptions as shall be advised by parliament; that the forts and castles be disposed of by consent of parliament; that no peers be made but with consent of both houses.

'Should I grant these demands,' said the King in reply, 'I may be waited on bare-headed; I may have my hand kissed; the title of majesty be continued to me; and *The king's authority, signified by both houses*, may be still the style of your commands; I may have swords and maces carried before me, and please myself with the sight of a crown and sceptre (tho' even these twigs would not long flourish, when the stock, upon which they grew, was dead): But as to true and real power, I should remain but the outside, but the picture, but the sign of a king.' War on any terms was esteemed, by the King and all his counsellors, preferable to so ignominious a peace. Charles accordingly made account of supporting his authority by arms. 'His towns,' he said, 'were taken from him, his ships, his arms, his money; but there still remained to him a good cause, and the hearts of his subjects, which, with God's blessing, he doubted not, would recover all the rest.' Collecting therefore some forces, he advanced southwards; and at Nottingham, he erected his royal standard, the open signal of discord and civil war thro'out the nation.

## CHAP. VII

*Commencement of the civil war – State of parties – Battle of Edgehill – Negotiation at Oxford – Victories of the royalists in the west – Battle of Stratton – Of Lansdown – Of Roundway-down – Death of Hambden – Bristol taken – Siege of Gloucester – Battle of Newbury – Actions in the north of England – Solemn league and covenant – Arming of the Scotch – State of Ireland*

When two names, so sacred in the English constitution, as those of KING and PARLIAMENT, were placed in opposition to each other; no wonder the people were divided in their choice, and were agitated with the most violent animosities and factions.

The nobility and more considerable gentry, dreading a total confusion of ranks and orders from the fury of the populace, ranged themselves in defence of the monarch, from whom they received, and to whom they communicated, their lustre. Animated with the spirit of loyalty, derived from their ancestors, they adhered to the antient principles of the constitution, and valued themselves on exerting the maxims, as well as inheriting the possessions, of the old English families. And while they passed their time mostly in their country-seats, they were surprized to hear of opinions prevailing, with which they had ever been unacquainted, and which implied, not a limitation, but an abolition almost total, of monarchical authority.<sup>1</sup>

The city of London on the other hand, and most of the great corporations, took part with the parliament, and adopted with zeal those democratical principles, on which the pretensions of that assembly were founded. The govern-

1. Among the other nobility, the Earl of Bristol, tho' long in the opposition, when matters came to extremity, adhered to the court, and was prosecuted with implacable malice by the parliament. He died in France in 1652.

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ment of cities, which, even under absolute monarchies, is commonly republican, inclined them to this party: The small hereditary influence, which can be retained over the industrious inhabitants of towns; the natural independence of citizens; and the force of popular currents over those more numerous associations of mankind; all these causes, there, gave authority to the new principles propagated thro'out the nation. Many families too, which had lately been enriched by commerce, saw with indignation, that, notwithstanding their opulence, they could not raise themselves to a level with the antient gentry: They therefore adhered to a power, by whose success they hoped to acquire rank and consideration. And the new splendor and glory of the Dutch commonwealth, where liberty so happily fostered industry, made all the commercial part of the nation ardently desire to see a like form of government established in England.

The genius of the two religions, so closely, at this time, interwoven with politics, corresponded exactly to these divisions. The presbyterian religion was new, republican, and suited to the genius of the populace: The other had an air of greater show and ornament, was established on antient authority, and bore an affinity to the kingly and aristocratical parts of the constitution. The devotees of presbytery became of course zealous partizans of the parliament: The friends of the episcopal church valued themselves on defending the rights of monarchy.

Some men too there were of liberal education, who, being either careless or ignorant of those disputes, bandied about by the clergy of both sides, aspired to nothing but an easy enjoyment of life, amid the jovial entertainment and social intercourse of their companions. All these flocked to the King's standard, where they breathed a freer air, and were exempted from that rigid preciseness and melancholy austerity, which reigned among the parliamentary party.

Never was a quarrel more unequal than seemed at first that betwixt the contending parties: Almost every advantage lay against the royal cause. The King's revenue had

been seized, from the beginning, by the parliament, who issued out to him, from time to time, small sums for his present subsistence; and as soon as he withdrew to Yorke, they totally stopped all payments. London and all the sea-ports, except Newcastle, being in their hands, the customs yielded them a certain and considerable supply of money; and all contributions, loans, and impositions were more easily raised from the cities, which possessed the ready money, and where men lived under their inspection, than they could be levied by the King in those open countries, which, after some time, declared for him.

The seamen naturally followed the disposition of the sea-ports, to which they belonged. And the Earl of Northumberland, Lord admiral, having embraced the party of the parliament, had named, at their desire, the Earl of Warwic for his lieutenant; who at once established his authority in the fleet, and kept the intire dominion of the sea in the hands of that assembly.

All the magazines of arms and ammunition were at first seized by the parliament; and their fleet intercepted the greatest part of those, which, from Holland, were sent by the Queen. The King was obliged, in order to arm his followers, to borrow the weapons of the train-bands, under promise of restoring them, as soon as peace should be settled in the kingdom.

The veneration for parliaments was, at that time, extreme thro'out the nation. The custom of reviling those assemblies for corruption, as it had no pretext, so was it unknown, during all former ages. Few or no instances of their encroaching ambition or selfish claims had hitherto been observed. Men considered the house of commons in no other light, than as the representatives of the nation, whose interest was the same with that of the public, who were the eternal guardians of law and liberty, and whom no motive, but the necessary defence of the people, could ever engage in an opposition to the crown. The torrent, therefore, of general affection ran to the parliament. What is the great advantage of popularity; the privilege of affixing epithets

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fell of course to that party. The King's adherents were the *Wicked* and the *Malignant*: Their adversaries were the *Godly* and the *Well-affected*. And as the force of the cities was more united than that of the country, and at once gave shelter and protection to the parliamentary party, who could easily suppress the royalists in their neighborhood; almost the whole kingdom, at the commencement of the war, seemed to be in the hands of the parliament.

What alone gave the King some compensation for all the advantages, possessed by his adversaries, was the nature and qualities of his adherents. Greater bravery and activity were hoped for, from the generous spirit of the nobles and gentry, than from the base disposition of a low multitude. And as the men of estates, at their own expence, levied and armed their tenants; beside an attachment to their masters, a superior force and courage were expected in these rustic troops, to what could be looked for in the vicious and ener-vated populace of cities.

The neighboring states of Europe, being engaged in violent wars, little interested themselves in these civil commotions; and this island enjoyed the singular advantage (for such it surely was) of fighting out its own quarrels without the interposal of foreigners. France from policy had formented the first disorders in Scotland; had sent over arms to the Irish rebels; and continued to give countenance to the English parliament: Spain, from bigotry, furnished the Irish with some supplies of money and arms. The Prince of Orange, closely allied to the crown, encouraged English officers, who served in the low-countries, to enlist in the King's army: The Scotch officers, who had been formed in Germany, and in the late commotions, chiefly took part with the parliament.

The contempt, entertained of the King's party, was so great, that it was the chief cause of pushing matters to such extremity against him; and many believed, that he never would attempt resistance, but must at last yield to the pretensions, however enormous, of the parliament. Even after his standard was erected, men could not be brought to

apprehend a civil war; nor was it imagined that he would have the imprudence to enrage his implacable enemies, and render his own condition more desperate, by opposing a force which was so much superior. The low condition, in which he appeared at Nottingham, farther confirmed all these hopes. His artillery, tho' very small, he had been obliged to leave at Yorke; for want of horses to transport it. Beside the trained bands of the county, raised by Sir John Digby, the sheriff, he had not got together above three hundred infantry. His cavalry, in which consisted his chief strength, exceeded not eight hundred, and were very ill provided of arms. The forces of the parliament lay at Northampton, within a few days march of him; and consisted of above six thousand men, well armed and well appointed. Had these troops advanced upon the King, they must soon have dissipated the small force which he had assembled. By pursuing him in his retreat, they had so discredited his cause and discouraged his adherents, as to have for ever prevented his gathering an army able to make head against them. But the Earl of Essex, the parliamentary general, had not yet received any orders from his masters. What rendered them so backward, after such precipitant steps as they had formerly taken, is not easily explained. 'Tis probable, that in the extreme distress of his party consisted the present safety of the King. The parliament hoped, that the royalists, sensible of their feeble condition, and convinced of their slender resources, would disperse of themselves, and leave their adversaries a victory, so much the more compleat and secure, that it would be gained without the appearance of force, and without blood-shed. Perhaps too, when it became necessary to make the conclusive step, and offer bare-faced violence to their sovereign, their scruples and apprehensions, tho' not sufficient to overcome their resolves, were able to protract the execution of them.

Sir Jacob Astley, whom the King had appointed major general of his intended army, told him, that he could not give him assurance but he might be taken out of his bed, if

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the rebels should make a brisk attempt to that purpose. All the King's attendants were full of well grounded apprehensions. Some of the lords having desired, that a message might be sent to the parliament with overtures to a treaty; Charles, who well knew that an accommodation, in his present condition, meant nothing but a total submission, hastily broke up the council, lest this proposal should be farther insisted on. But next day, the Earl of Southampton, whom no one could suspect of base or timid counsels, having opened the same advice, it was hearkened to with more coolness and deliberation. He urged, that, tho' such a step would probably encrease the insolence of the parliament; this was so far from being an objection, that nothing could be of greater advantage to the royal cause: That if they refused to treat, which was most probable, the very sound of peace was so popular, that nothing could more disgust the nation than such haughty severity: That if they admitted of a treaty, their propositions, considering their present condition, would be so exorbitant, as to open the eyes of their most partial adherents, and gain the general favor to the King's party: And that, at worst, time might be gained by this expedient, and a delay of the imminent danger, with which the King was at present threatened.

Charles, on assembling the council, had declared against all advances towards an accommodation; and had said, that, having now nothing left him but his honor, that last possession he was resolved stedily to preserve, and rather to perish than yield any farther to the pretensions of his enemies. But by the concurrent desire of the counsellors, he was prevailed with to embrace Southampton's advice. That Nobleman, therefore, along with Sir John Colepeper and Sir William Uvedale, was dispatched to London with offers of a treaty. The manner of their reception gave little hopes of success. Southampton was not allowed by the peers to take his seat; but was ordered to deliver his message to the usher, and to depart the city immediately: The commons showed little better disposition to Colepeper. Both houses replied, that they could admit no treaty with the King, till

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he took down his standard, and recalled his proclamations, in which the parliament supposed themselves to be declared traitors. The King, by a second message, denied any such intention against the two houses; but offered to recall these proclamations, provided the parliament agreed to recall theirs, in which his adherents were declared traitors. They desired him in return to dismiss his forces, to reside with his parliament, and give up delinquents to their justice; that is, abandon himself and his friends to the mercy of his enemies. Both parties flattered themselves, that, by these messages and replies, they had gained the ends which they proposed. The King believed, that the people were sufficiently satisfied of the parliament's insolence and aversion to peace: The parliament intended, by this vigor in their resolutions, to support the vigor of their military operations.

The courage of the parliament, beside their great superiority of force, was supported by two recent events, which had happened in their favor. Goring was governor of Portsmouth, the best fortified town in the kingdom, and, by its situation, of great importance. This man seemed to have rendered himself an implacable enemy to the King, by betraying, probably magnifying, the secret cabals of the army; and the parliament thought, that his fidelity to them might, on that account, be entirely depended on. But the same levity of mind still attended him, and the same disregard to engagements and professions. Underhand he took his measures with the court, and declared against the parliament. But, tho' he had been sufficiently supplied with money, and long before knew his danger; so small was his foresight, that he had left the place entirely destitute of provisions, and, in a few days, was obliged to surrender to the forces of the parliament.

The Marquis of Hertford was a Nobleman of the greatest quality and character in the kingdom, and, equally with the King, descended, by a female, from Henry VII. During the reign of James, he had attempted, without having obtained the consent of that monarch, to marry Arabella Stuart, a Lady nearly related to the crown; and, upon discovery of

his intention, had been obliged, for some time, to fly the kingdom. Ever after, he was looked on with an evil eye at court, from which, in a great measure, he withdrew; and living in an independent manner, he addicted himself entirely to literary occupations and amusements. In proportion as the King declined in popularity, Hertford's character flourished with the people; and when this parliament assembled, no nobleman in the kingdom possessed more general favor and authority. By his sagacity, he soon perceived, that the commons, not contented with correcting the abuses of government, were carried, by the natural current of power and popularity, into the opposite extreme, and were committing violations, no less dangerous than the former, upon the English constitution. Immediately he devoted himself to the support of the King's falling authority, and was prevailed with to be governor to the young Prince, and reside in the court, to which, in the eyes of all men, he gave, by his presence, a new lustre and authority. So high was his character for mildness and humanity, that he still preserved, by means of these popular virtues, the public favor; and every one was sensible of the true motive of his change. Notwithstanding his habits of ease and study, he now bestirred himself in raising an army for the King; and being named general of the western counties, where his interest chiefly lay, he began to assemble forces in Somersetshire. By the assistance of Lord Seymour, Lord Paulet, John Digby, son to the Earl of Bristol, Sir Francis Hawley, and others, he had drawn together some appearance of an army; when the parliament, apprehensive of the danger, sent the Earl of Bedford with a considerable force against him. On his appearance, Hertford was obliged to retire into Sherborne castle; and finding that place incapable of defence, he himself passed over into Wales, leaving Sir Ralph Hopton, Sir John Berkeley, Digby, and other officers, with their horse, consisting of about a hundred and twenty, to march into Cornwall, in hopes of finding that county better prepared for their reception.

All the dispersed bodies of the parliament's army were

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now ordered to march to Northampton; and the Earl of Essex, who had joined them, found the whole amount to 15,000 men. The King, tho' his camp had been gradually reinforced from all quarters, was sensible, that he had no army which could cope with so formidable a force; and he thought it prudent, by slow marches, to retire to Derby and thence to Shrewsbury, in order to countenance the levies, which his friends were making in those quarters. At Wellington, a day's march from Shrewsbury, he made a rendezvous of all his forces, and caused his military orders to be read at the head of each regiment. That he might bind himself by reciprocal ties, he solemnly took the following protestation before his whole army.

'I do promise, in the presence of Almighty God, and as I hope for his blessing and protection, that I will, to the utmost of my power, defend and maintain the true reformed protestant religion, established in the church of England; and, by the grace of God, in the same will live and die.'

'I desire, that the laws may ever be the measure of my government, and that the liberty and property of the subject may by them be preserved with the same care as my own just rights. And if it please God, by his blessing on this army, raised for my necessary defence, to preserve me from the present rebellion; I do solemnly and faithfully promise, in the sight of God, to maintain the just privileges and freedom of parliament, and to govern, to the utmost of my power, by the known statutes and customs of the kingdom, and particularly, to observe inviolably the laws to which I have consented this parliament. Mean while, if this emergence, and the great necessity to which I am driven, beget any violation of law, I hope it shall be imputed by God and man to the authors of this war; and not to me who have so earnestly labored to preserve the peace of the kingdom.'

'When I willingly fail in these particulars, I shall expect no aid or relief from man, nor any protection from above: But in this resolution, I hope for the cheerful assistance of all good men, and am confident of the blessing of heaven.'

## *Charles I*

Tho' the assistance of the church undoubtedly increased the King's adherents, it may safely be affirmed, that the high monarchical doctrines, so much inculcated by the clergy, had never done him any real service. Of all that generous train of nobility and gentry, who now attended the King in his distresses, there were none who breathed not the spirit of liberty, as well as of loyalty: And in the hopes alone of his amending some past errors, were they willing, in his defence, to sacrifice their lives and fortunes.

While the King lay at Shrewsbury, and was employing himself in collecting money, which he received, tho' in no great quantities, by voluntary contributions, and by the plate of the universities, which was sent him; he received news of an action, the first which had happened in these wars, and where he was successful.

On the appearance of commotions in England, the Princes, Rupert and Maurice, sons to the unfortunate Palatine, had offered their service to the King; and the former, at that time, commanded a body of horse, which had been sent to Worcester, in order to watch the motions of Essex, who was marching towards that city. No sooner had the Prince arrived, than he saw some cavalry of the enemy approaching to the gates. Without delay, he briskly attacked them, as they were defiling from a lane and forming themselves. Colonel Sandys, who led them and fought with valor, being mortally wounded, fell from his horse. The whole party, was routed, and was pursued above a mile: The Prince hearing of Essex's approach, retired to the King. This encounter, tho' in itself of small importance, raised mightily the reputation of the royalists, and acquired universally to Prince Rupert the character of promptitude and courage; qualities, which he eminently displayed, during the whole course of the war.

The King, on mustering his army, found it about 10,000 men. The Earl of Lindsey, who in his youth had sought experience of military service in the low-countries,<sup>2</sup> was general: Prince Rupert commanded the horse: Sir Jacob

2. He was then Lord Willoughby.

Astley, the foot: Sir Arthur Aston, the dragoons: Sir John Heydon, the artillery. The Lord Bernard Stuart was at the head of a troop of guards. The estate and revenue of this single troop, according to Lord Clarendon's computation, was at least equal to that of all the members, who, at the commencement of the war, voted in both houses. Their servants, under the command of Sir William Killigrew, made another troop, and always marched with their masters.

With this army the King left Shrewsbury, resolving to give battle as soon as possible, to the army of the parliament, which he heard was continually augmenting by supplies from London. In order to bring on an action, he directed his course towards the capital, which, he knew, the enemy would not abandon to him. Essex had now received his instructions. The import of them was, to present a most humble petition to the King and to rescue him, and the royal family, from those desperate malignants, who had seized their persons. Two days after the departure of the royalists from Shrewsbury, he left Worcester. Tho' it be easy in civil wars to get intelligence, the two armies were within six miles of each other, ere either of the generals was acquainted with the approach of his enemy. Shrewsbury and Worcester, the places from which they set out, are not above twenty miles distant; yet had the two armies marched ten days in this mutual ignorance. So much had military skill, during a long peace, decayed in England.

The royal army lay near Banbury: That of the parliament, at Keinton, in the county of Warwic. Prince Rupert sent intelligence of the enemy. Tho' the day was far advanced, the King resolved upon the attack: Essex drew up his men to receive him. Sir Faithful Fortescue, who had levied a troop for the Irish wars, had been obliged to serve in the parliamentary army, and was now posted on the left wing, commanded by Ramsay, a Scotchman. No sooner did the King's army approach, than Fortescue, ordering his troop to discharge their pistols in the ground, put himself under the command of Prince Rupert. Partly from this

accident, partly from the furious shock made upon them by the Prince; that whole wing of cavalry immediately fled, and were pursued for two miles. The right wing of the parliament's army had no better success. Chaced from their ground by Wilmot and Sir Arthur Aston, they also took to flight. The King's body of reserve, commanded by Sir John Biron, judging, like raw soldiers, that all was over, and impatient to have some share in the action, with spurs and loose reins followed the chace, which their left wing had precipitately led them. Sir William Balfour, who commanded Essex's reserve, perceived the advantage: He wheeled about upon the King's infantry, now quite unfurnished of horse, and made great havoc among them. Lindesey, the general, was mortally wounded, and taken prisoner. His son, endeavoring his rescue, fell likeways into the enemy's hands. Sir Edmund Verney, who carried the king's standard, was killed, and the standard taken; but it was afterwards recovered. In this situation, Prince Rupert, on his return, found affairs. Every thing bore the appearance of a defeat, instead of a victory, with which he had hastily flattered himself. Some advised the King to leave the field: But that Prince, whose personal valor was unquestioned, rejected such pusillanimous council. The two armies faced each other for some time, and neither of them retained courage sufficient for a new attack. All night they lay under arms; and next moring found themselves in sight of each other. General, as well as soldier, on both sides, seemed averse to renew the battle. Essex first drew off and retired to Warwic. The King returned to his former quarters. Five thousand men are said to have been found dead on the field of battle, and the loss of the two armies, as far as we can judge by the opposite accounts, was nearly equal. Such was the event of this first battle, fought at Keinton or Edgehill.

Some of Essex's horse, who had been drove off the field in the beginning of the action, flying to a great distance, carried news of a total defeat, and struck a mighty terror into the city and parliament. After, a few days, a more just

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account arrived; and then the parliament pretended to a compleat victory. The King too, on his part, was not wanting to display his advantages; tho', except the taking of Banbury, a few days after, he had few marks of victory to boast of. He continued his march, and took possession of Oxford, the only town in his dominions, which was altogether at his devotion.

After the royal army were recruited and refreshed; as the weather still continued favorable, they were again put in motion. A party of horse having been sent from Abingdon, where were fixed the head quarters of the cavalry, they approached to Reading, of which Martin was established governor by the parliament. Both governor and garrison were seized with a panic, and fled with precipitation to London. Charles, hoping that every thing would yield before him, advanced with his whole army to Reading. The parliament; who, instead of their fond expectations, that Charles would never be able to collect an army, had now the prospect of a civil war, bloody, and of uncertain event; were farther alarmed at the near approach of the royal army, while their own forces lay at a distance. They voted an address for a treaty. The King's nearer approach to Colbroke quickened their advances. Northumberland and Pembroke with three commoners presented the address of both houses; in which they besought his Majesty to appoint some convenient place, where he might reside, till committees could attend him with proposals. The King named Windsor, and desired, that the garrison might be removed, and his own troops admitted into that fortress.

Mean while Essex, advancing by hasty marches, had arrived at London. But neither the presence of his army, nor the precarious hopes of a treaty retarded the King's approaches. At Brentford, he attacked two regiments quartered there, and, after a sharp action, beat them from that village, and took about 500 prisoners. The parliament had sent orders to forbear all hostilities, and had expected the same compliance from the King; tho' no stipulations to that purpose had been mentioned by their commissioners.

Loud complaints were raised against this attack, as the most apparent perfidy, and breach of treaty. Enflamed with resentment, as well as anxious for its own defence, the city marched its trained bands in excellent order, and joined the army under Essex. The force of the parliamentary army now amounted to above 24,000 men, and was much superior to that of the King's. After both armies had faced each other for some time, the King drew off and retired to Reading, and from thence to Oxford.

While the principal armies on both sides were retained in inaction by the winter season, the King and parliament were employed in real preparations for war, and in seeming advances towards peace. By means of contributions or assessments, levied by the horse, Charles maintained his cavalry: By loans and voluntary presents, sent him from all parts of the kingdom, he supported his infantry: But the supplies were still very unequal to the necessities under which he labored. The parliament had much greater resources for money; and had, by consequence, every military preparation in much greater order and abundance. Beside an imposition, levied in London, amounting to the five and twentieth part of every one's substance, they established on that city a weekly assessment of 10,000 pounds, and another of twenty four thousand, on the rest of the kingdom. And as their authority was at present established in most counties, they levied these taxes with great regularity; tho' they amounted to sums, much beyond what the nation had formerly paid to the public exigencies.

The King and parliament sent reciprocally their demands and a treaty commenced, but without any cessation of hostilities; as had at first been proposed. The Earl of Northumberland and four members of the lower house came to Oxford as commissioners. In this treaty, the King perpetually insisted on the re-establishment of the crown in its legal powers, and on the restoration of his constitutional prerogative: The parliament still required new concessions, and a farther abridgement of regal authority, as a more

effectual remedy to their fears and jealousies. Finding the King supported by more forces and a greater party, than they had ever looked for, they seemingly abated somewhat of those exorbitant conditions, which they had formerly claimed; but their demands were still too great for an equal treaty. Beside other articles, to which a compleat victory could alone intitle them; they required the King, in express terms, utterly to abolish episcopacy; a demand, which, before, they only insinuated: And they required, that all other ecclesiastical controversies should be determined by their assembly of divines; that is, in the manner the most repugnant to the inclinations of the King and all his partizans. They likeways desired him to acquiesce in their settlement of the militia, and to confer on their adherents the intire authority of the sword. And in answer to the King's proposition, that his magazines, towns, forts, and ships, should be restored to him, the parliament required, that they should be put into such hands as they could confide in. The nineteen propositions which they formerly sent the King, shewed their *inclination* to abolish monarchy: They only asked, at present, the *power* of doing it. And having now, in the eye of the law, been guilty of treason, by levying war against their sovereign; it is evident, that their fears and jealousies must, on that account, have multiplied extremely, and have rendered their personal safety, which they interwove with the national, still more incompatible with the authority of the monarch. Tho' the well-known gentleness and lenity of the King's temper might have ensured them against all schemes of future vengeance; they preferred an independent security, accompanied too with sovereign power, before the station of subjects, and that not intirely guarded from all apprehensions of danger.<sup>3</sup>

3. Whitlocke, who was one of the commissioners, says, 'In this treaty, the King manifested his great parts and abilities, strength of reason and quickness of apprehension, with much patience in hearing what was objected against him; wherein he allowed all freedom, and would himself sum up the arguments and give a most clear judg-

The conferences went no farther than the first demand on each side. The parliament, finding, that there was no likelihood of coming to any agreement, suddenly recalled their commissioners.

A military enterprize, which they had concerted early in the spring, was immediately undertaken. Reading, that garrison of the King, which lay nearest London, was esteemed a place of considerable strength, in that age, when the art of attacking towns was not well understood in Europe, and was totally unknown in England. Before this town the Earl of Essex sat down with an army of 18,000 men; and he carried on his attack by regular approaches. Sir Arthur Aston, the governor, being wounded, Collonel Fielding succeeded to the command. In a little time, the town was found to be no longer in a condition of defence; and, tho' the King approached, with an intention of obliging Essex to raise the seige, the disposition of the parliamentary army was so strong, as rendered that design impracticable. Fielding, therefore, was content to yield the

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ment upon them. His unhappiness was, that he had a better opinion of other's judgments than of his own, tho' they were weaker than his own; and of this the parliament-commissioners had experience to their great trouble. They were often waiting on the King, and debating some points of the treaty with him, until midnight, before they could come to a conclusion. Upon one of the most material points, they pressed his Majesty with their reasons and best arguments they could use to grant what they desired. The King said, he was fully satisfied, and promised to give them his answer in writing according to their desire; but, because it was then past midnight, and too late to put it into writing, he would have it drawn up next morning (when he commanded them to wait on him again) and then he would give them his answer in writing, as it was now agreed upon. But next morning the King told them, that he had altered his mind: And some of his friends, of whom the commissioners inquired, told them, that after they were gone, and even his council retired, some of his bed-chamber never left pressing and persuading him till they prevailed on him to change his former resolutions.' It is difficult, however, to conceive, that any treaty could have place betwixt the King and parliament, while the latter insisted, as they all along did, on a total submiss on to all their demands, and challenged the whole power, which they intended to employ to the punishment of all the King's friends.

town, on condition, that he should bring off all the garrison with the honors of war, and deliver up deserters. This last condition was esteemed so ignominious and so prejudicial to the King's interest, that the governor was tried by a council of war, and condemned to lose his life for consenting to it. His sentence was afterwards remitted by the King.

Essex's army had been fully supplied with all the necessities of life from London: Even many of the superfluities and luxuries were sent them by the care of the zealous citizens: Yet the hardships, which they suffered from the siege, during so early a season, had weakened them to such a degree, that they were no longer fit for any new enterprise. And the two armies, for some time, encamped in the neighborhood of each other, without attempting, on either side, any action of moment.

Beside the military operations betwixt the principal armies, which lay in the center of England; each county, each town, each family, almost, was divided within itself; and the most violent convulsions shook the whole kingdom. Thro'out the winter, continual efforts had every where been made by each party to surmount its antagonist; and the English, rouzed from the lethargy of peace, with eager, tho' unskillful hands, employed against their fellow-citizens their long neglected weapons. The furious zeal for liberty and presbyterian discipline, which had hitherto run uncontroled thro' the nation, now at last excited an equal ardor for monarchy and episcopacy; when the intention of abolishing these antient modes of government was openly avowed by the parliament. A convention for neutrality, tho', in several counties, it had been entered into, and confirmed by the most solemn oaths, yet being voted illegal by the two houses, was immediately broke; and the fire of discord was spred into every corner. The alteration of discourse, the controversies of the pen, but above all, the declamations of the pulpit, indisposed the minds of men towards each other, and propagated the blind rage of party. Fierce, however, and enflamed as were the dispositions of men, by a war, both civil and religious, that great destroyer

of humanity; all the events of this period are less distinguished by atrocious deeds, either of treachery or cruelty, than were ever any intestine discords, which had so long a continuance. A circumstance, which, if duly weighed, will be found to imply great praise of the national character of that people, now so unhappily rouzed to arms.

In the north, the Lord Fairfax commanded for the parliament, the Earl of Newcastle for the King. This last Nobleman began those associations, which were afterwards so much practised in other parts of the kingdom. He united in a league for the King the counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and the Bishopric, and engaged, some time after, other counties in the same association. Finding that Fairfax, assisted by Hotham and the garrison of Hull, was making progress in the southern parts of Yorkeshire; he advanced with a body of four thousand men and took possession of Yorke. At Tadcaster, he attacked the forces of the parliament and dislodged them: But his victory was not decisive. In other renounters he obtained some inconsiderable advantages. But the chief benefit, which resulted from his enterprizes, was the establishing the King's authority in all the northern provinces.

In another part of the kingdom, the Lord Broke was killed by a shot, while he was taking possession of Litchfield for the parliament. After a sharp combat, near Stafford, betwixt the Earl of Northampton and Sir John Gell, the former, who commanded the King's forces, was killed while he combated with extreme valor; and his forces, discouraged by his death, tho' they had obtained the advantage in the action, retreated into the town of Stafford.

Sir William Waller began to distinguish himself among the generals of the parliament. Active and indefatigable in his operations, rapid and enterprizing; his genius was suited to the nature of the war; which being managed by raw troops, conducted by unexperienced commanders, afforded success to every bold and sudden undertaking. After taking Winchester and Chichester, he advanced towards Gloucester which was in a manner blockaded by Lord Herbert, who

had levied considerable forces in Wales for the royal party. While he attacked the Welch on one side, a sally from Gloucester made impression on the other. Herbert was defeated; five hundred of his men killed on the spot; a thousand taken prisoners; and he himself escaped with some difficulty to Oxford. Hereford, esteemed a strong town, defended by a considerable garrison, was surrendered to Waller, from the cowardice of Collonel Price, the governor. Teukesbury underwent the same fate. Worcester refused him admittance; and Waller, without placing any garrisons in his new conquests, retired to Gloucester, and from thence to Essex's army.

But the most memorable actions of valor, during this winter-season, were performed in the west. When Sir Ralph Hopton, with his small troop, retired into Cornwall before the Earl of Bedford, that Nobleman, despising so inconsiderable a force, abandoned the pursuit, and committed the suppression of the royal party to the sheriffs of the county. But the affections of Cornwall were much inclined to the King's service. While Sir Richard Buller and Sir Alexander Carew, lay at Launceston, and employed themselves in executing the parliament's ordinance for the militia, a meeting of the county was assembled at Truro; and after Hopton produced his commission from the Earl of Hertford, the King's general, it was agreed to execute the laws and to expel these invaders of the county. The trained bands were accordingly levied, Launceston taken, and all Cornwall reduced to peace and obedience to the King.

It had been usual for the royal party, on the commencement of these disorders, to claim, on all occasions, the strict execution of the laws, which, they knew, were favorable to them; and the parliament, rather than have recourse to the plea of necessity, and avow the transgression of any statute, had also been accustomed to warp the laws, and by forced constructions to interprete them in their own favor. But tho' the King was naturally the gainer by such a method of conducting war, and it was by favor of law,

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that the trained bands were raised in Cornwall; it appeared that these maxims were now prejudicial to the royal party. These troops could not legally, without their own consent, be carried out of the county; and consequently, the advantages which they had obtained, it was impossible to push into Devonshire. The Cornish royalists, therefore, be-thought themselves of levying a force, which might be more serviceable. Beside Sir Ralph Hopton; Sir Bevil Granville, the most beloved man of that country, Sir Nicholas Slanning, Arundel, and Trevannion, undertook, at their own charges, to raise an army for the King; and their great interest in Cornwall soon enabled them to effect their purpose. The parliament, alarmed at this appearance of the royalists, gave a commission to Ruthven, a Scotchman, governor of Plymouth, to march with the whole forces of Dorset, Somerset, and Devon, and make an intire conquest of Cornwall. The Earl of Stamford followed him, at some distance, with a considerable supply. Ruthven, having entered Cornwall by bridges thrown over the Tamar, hastened to an action; lest Stamford should join him and obtain the honor of that victory, which he looked for with assurance. The royalists, in like manner, were impatient to bring the affair to a decision, before Ruthven's army should receive so considerable a reinforcement. The battle was fought at Bradoc-down; and the King's forces, tho' inferior in number, gave a total defeat to their enemies. Ruthven with a few broken troops fled to Saltash; and when that town was taken, he escaped, with some difficulty, and almost alone, into Plymouth. Stamford retired, and distributed his forces into Plymouth and Exeter.

Notwithstanding these advantages, the extreme necessities both of money and ammunition, under which the royalists labored, obliged them to enter into a convention of neutrality with the parliamentary party in Devonshire; and this neutrality held all the winter-season. In the spring it was broke by the authority of the two houses; and war re-commenced with great appearance of disadvantage to the King's party. Stamford, having assembled a strong body

of near seven thousand men, well supplied with money, provisions, and ammunition, advanced upon the royalists, who were not half his number, and were oppressed by every species of necessity. Despair, joined to the natural gallantry of these troops, commanded by the prime gentry of the county, made them resolve, by one vigorous effort, to overcome all these disadvantages. Stamford being encamped on the top of a high hill near Stratton, they attacked him in four divisions, at five in the morning, having lain all night under arms. One division was commanded by Lord Mohun and Sir Ralph Hopton, another by Sir Bevil Grenville and Sir John Berkeley, a third by Slanning and Trevanion, a fourth by Basset and Godolphin. In this manner the action begun; the King's forces pressing with the utmost vigor those four ways up the hill, and their enemies as obstinately defending themselves. The fight continued with very doubtful success, till word was brought to the chief officers of the Cornish, that their ammunition was spent to less than four barrels of powder. This defect, which they concealed from the soldiers, they resolved, by their valor, to supply. By means of messengers, they agreed to advance without firing till they reached the top of the hill, and could be on equal ground with the enemy. The officers' courage was, by the soldiers, so well seconded, that the royalists began, on all sides, to gain ground. Major-general Chidley, who commanded the parliament-army, (for Stamford kept at a distance) failed not in his duty; and when he saw his men recoil, himself advanced with a good stand of pikes, and piercing into the thickest of the enemy, was at last overpowered with numbers and taken prisoner. His army, upon this disaster, gave ground apace; insomuch that the four parties of the royalists, growing nearer and nearer as they ascended, at last all met together upon the plain at the top; where they embraced with unspeakable joy, and signalized their victory with loud shouts and mutual congratulations.

After this success, the attention of both King and parliament was turned towards the west, as to a very important

scene of action. The King sent the Marquis of Hertford and Prince Maurice, with a reinforcement of cavalry; who having joined the Cornish army, soon over-ran the county of Devon: and advancing into that of Somerset, began to reduce it to obedience. On the other hand, the parliament having supplied Sir William Waller, to whom they much trusted, with a compleat army, dispatched him westwards, in order to check the progress of the royalists. After some skirmishes, the two armies met at Lansdown, near Bath, and fought a pitched battle, with great loss on both sides, but without any decisive event. The gallant Granville was there killed; and Hopton, by the blowing up of some powder, was dangerously hurt. The royalists next attempted to march eastwards and to join their forces to the King's at Oxford: But Waller hung on their rear, and infested their march till they reached Devizes. Reinforced by additional troops, which flocked to him from all quarters; he so much surpassed the royalists in number, that they durst no longer prosecute their march or expose themselves to the danger of an action. It was resolved that Hertford and Prince Maurice should proceed with the cavalry; and having received a reinforcement from the King, should hasten back to the relief of their distressed friends in the Devizes. Waller was so confident of taking this body of infantry, now abandoned by their friends, that he wrote to the parliament, that their work was done, and that, by the next post, he would inform them of the number and quality of the prisoners. But the King, even before Hertford's arrival, hearing of the great difficulties to which his western army was reduced, had prepared a considerable body of horse, which he immediately dispatched under the command of Lord Wilmot. Waller drew up on Roundway-down, about two miles from the Devizes; and advancing with his horse to fight Wilmot and prevent his conjunction with the Cornish infantry, was received with equal valor by the royalists. After a sharp action he was totally routed, and flying with a new horse, escaped to Bristol. Wilmot seizing the enemies cannon, and having joined his friends, whom he came to

relieve, attacked Waller's infantry with redoubled courage, drove them off the field, and routed and dispersed the whole army.

This important victory, following so quick after many other successes, struck great dismay into the parliament, and gave an alarm to their principal army, commanded by Essex. Waller exclaimed loudly against that general, for allowing Wilmot to pass him, and proceed without any interruption to the succor of the distressed infantry at the Devizes. But Essex, finding that his army fell continually to decay after the siege of Reading, was resolved to remain upon the defensive; and the weakness of the King, and his want of all military stores, had also restrained the activity of the royal army. No action had happened in that part of England, except one skirmish, which, of itself, was of no great consequence, and was rendered memorable by the death alone of the famous Hambden.

Colonel Urrcy, a Scotchman, who served in the parliament's army, having received some disgust, came to Oxford, and offered his service to the King. In order to prove the sincerity of his conversion, he informed Prince Rupert of the loose disposition of the enemies quarters, and exhorted him to form some attempt upon them. The Prince, who was intirely fitted for that kind of service, falling suddenly upon the dispersed bodies of Essex's army, routed two regiments of cavalry and one of infantry, and carried his ravages within two miles of the general's quarters. The alarm being given, every one mounted on horseback, in order to pursue the Prince, to recover the prisoners, and to repair the disgrace, which the army had suffered. Among the rest, Hambden, who had a regiment of infantry, that lay at a distance, joined the horse as a simple volunteer; and overtaking the royalists on Chalgrave field, entered into the thickest of the battle. By the bravery and activity of Rupert, the King's troops were brought off, and a great booty, along with two hundred prisoners, conveyed to Oxford. But what most pleased the royalists was the expectation, that some disaster

## *Charles I*

had happened to Hambden, their capital and much dreaded enemy. One of the prisoners taken in the action, said, that he was confident Mr Hambden was hurt: For he saw him, contrary to his usual custom, ride off the field, before the action was finished; his head hanging down, and his hands leaning upon his horse's neck. Next day, the news arrived, that he was shot in the shoulder with a brace of bullets, and the bone broke. Some days after, with exquisite pain, he died of his wound; nor could his whole party, had their army met with a total overthrow, be cast into greater consternation. The King himself so highly valued him, that, either from generosity or policy, he offered to send his own surgeon to assist at his cure.<sup>4</sup>

Many were the virtues and talents of this eminent personage; and his valor, during the war, had shone out with a lustre, equal to that of all the other accomplishments, by which he had ever been so much distinguished. Affability in conversation; temper, art, and eloquence in debate; penetration and discernment in council; industry, vigilance, and enterprize in action; all these praises, by historians of the most opposite parties, are unanimously ascribed to him. His virtue too and integrity, in all the duties of private life, are allowed to have been beyond exception: We must only be cautious, notwithstanding his generous zeal for liberty, how we ascribe to him the praises of a good citizen. Thro' all the horrors of civil war, he sought the abolition of monarchy and subversion of the constitution; an end, which, had it been attainable by peaceful measures, ought carefully to have been avoided, by every lover of his country. But whether, in the pursuit of this violent enterprize, he was actuated by private ambition, or by honest prejudices, derived from the former abuses of royal authority, it belongs not to an historian of this age, scarce even to an intimate friend, positively to determine.

Essex, discouraged by this event, dismayed by the total rout of Waller, was farther informed, that the Queen, who had landed in Burlington bay, was advanced to Oxford,

4. *Warwic's Memoirs.*

## *The History of Great Britain*

and had brought from the north a reinforcement of three thousand foot and fifteen hundred horse. From Thame and Aylesbury, where he had hitherto lain, he thought proper to retreat nearer London, and he showed to his friends his broken and disheartened forces, which a few months before, he had led to the field in so flourishing a condition. The King, disengaged of this enemy, sent his army westward under Prince Rupert; and by conjunction with the Cornish troops, a very formidable force, for numbers, as well as reputation and valor, was composed. That an enterprize, correspondent to men's expectations, might be undertaken, the Prince resolved to lay siege to Bristol, the second town for riches and greatness in the kingdom. Nathaniel Fiennes, son to Lord Say, himself, as well as his father, a great parliamentary leader, was governor, and commanded a garrison of two thousand five hundred foot, and two regiments, one of horse, another of dragoons. The fortifications not being compleat or regular, it was resolved by Rupert to storm the city; and next morning, with little other provisions, suitable to such a work, beside the courage of the troops, the assault began. The Cornish, in three divisions, attacked the west side, with a resolution, which nothing but death could control: But tho' the middle division had already mounted the wall, so great was the disadvantage of the ground, and so brave the defence of the garrison, that in the end the assailants were repulsed, with a considerable loss of officers and soldiers. On the Prince's side, with equal courage, and almost with equal loss, but with better success, was the assault conducted. One division, led by Lord Grandison, was beat off, and the commander himself mortally wounded: Another, conducted by Collonel Bellasis, met with a like fate: But Washington with a less party, finding a place in the curtaine weaker than the rest, broke in, and quickly made room for the horse to follow. By this irruption, however, nought but the suburbs was yet gained: The entrance into the town was still more difficult: And by the loss already sustained, as well as by the prospect of farther danger, was every one extremely discouraged:

When to the great joy of the whole army, the city beat a parley. The garrison were allowed to march out with their arms and baggage, leaving their cannon, ammunition, and colours. For this instance of cowardice, Fiennes was afterwards tried by a court-martial, and condemned to lose his head; but the sentence was remitted by the general.

Great complaints were made of violences, exercized on the garrison, contrary to the capitulation. An apology was made, by the royalists, as if these were a retaliation for some violences, committed on their friends at the surrender of Reading. And under pretext of like retaliations, but really from the extreme hatred of the parties, were such irregularities continued during the whole course of the war.

The loss, sustained by the royalists in the assault of Bristol, was considerable. Five hundred excellent soldiers perished. Among those of condition were Grandison, Slanning, Trevannion, and Moyle: Bellasis, Ashley, and Sir John Owen, were wounded: Yet was the success, upon the whole, so considerable as mightily elated the one party, and depressed the other. The King, to show that he was not intoxicated with good fortune, nor aspired to a total victory over the parliament, published a manifesto, in which he renewed the protestation formerly taken, with great solemnity, at the head of his army, and expressed his firm intention of making peace upon the re-establishment of the constitution. Having joined the camp at Bristol, and sent Prince Maurice with a detachment into Devonshire, he deliberated how to employ the remaining forces, in an enterprize of importance. Some proposed, and seemingly with great reason, to march directly to London, where every thing was in great confusion, where the army was baffled, weakened and dismayed, and where, it was hoped, either by an insurrection, by victory, or by treaty, a speedy end might be put to the civil disorders: But this undertaking, by reason of the great number and force of the London militia, was thought by several to be attended with considerable difficulties. Gloucester, lying within twenty miles,

presented an easier, and yet a very important conquest. It was the only remaining garrison possessed by the parliament in those parts. Could that city be reduced, the King held the whole course of the Severn under his command; the rich and male-content counties of the west, having lost all protection from their friends, might be enforced to pay high contributions, as an atonement for their disaffection; an open communication could be preserved betwixt Wales and these new conquests; and half of the kingdom, being intirely free'd from the enemy, and thus united into one firm body, might be employed in re-establishing the King's authority thro'out the remainder. These were the reasons for embracing that resolution; fatal, as it was ever esteemed, to the royal party.

The governor of Gloucester was Massey, a soldier of fortune, who, before he engaged with the parliament, had offered his service to the King; and as he was free from the fumes of enthusiasm, by which most of the officers on that side, were intoxicated, he would lend an ear, it was presumed, to proposals for accommodation. But Massey was resolute to preserve an intire fidelity to his masters; and tho' no fanatic himself, he well knew how to employ to advantage that fanatical spirit, so prevalent over his city and garrison. The summons to surrender allowed two hours for an answer: But before that time expired, there appeared before the King two citizens, with lean, pale, sharp, and dismal visages: Faces, so strange and uncouth, according to Lord Clarendon; figures, so habited and accoutered; as at once moved the most severe countenances to mirth, and the most cheerful hearts to sadness. It seemed impossible, that such ambassadors could bring less than a defiance. The men, without any circumstance of duty or good manners, in a pert, shrill, undismayed accent, said, that they brought an answer from the godly city of Gloucester: And extremely ready were they, according to the historian, to give insolent and seditious replies to any questions; as if their business were chiefly, by provoking the King, to make him violate his own safe conduct. The answer from the city was in these

words. ‘We the inhabitants, magistrates, officers and soldiers, within the garrison of Gloucester, unto his Majesty’s gracious message, return this humble answer: That we do keep this city, according to our oaths and allegiance, to and for the use of his Majesty and his royal posterity: And do accordingly conceive ourselves wholly bound to obey the commands of his Majesty signified by both houses of parliament: And are resolved by God’s help to keep this city accordingly.’ After these preliminaries, the siege was resolutely undertaken by the army and as resolutely sustained by the garrison.

When intelligence of the siege of Gloucester arrived in London, the consternation, among the inhabitants, was as great, as if the enemy were already at their gates. The rapid progress of the royalists threatened the parliament with a sudden conquest: The factions and discontents, among themselves, in the city, and thro’out the neighboring counties, prognosticated some dangerous division or insurrection. Those parliamentary leaders, it must be owned, who had introduced such mighty innovations in the English constitution, and who had projected so much greater, had not engaged in an enterprize, which exceeded their courage and capacity. Great vigor, from the beginning, as well as wisdom, had they displayed in all their councils; and a furious, head-strong body, broke loose from the restraint of law, had hitherto been retained in subjection by their authority, and firmly united by zeal and passion, as by the most legal and established government. A small committee, on whom the two houses devolved their power, had directed all their councils, and had preserved a secrecy in deliberation, and a promptitude in execution, beyond what the King, notwithstanding the advantages possessed by a single leader, had ever been able to attain. Sensible that no jealousy was by their partizans entertained against them, they had, on all occasions, exerted an authority much more despotic, than by the royalists, even during the pressing exigences of war, could with patience be endured in their sovereign. Whoever incurred their displeasure, or was exposed to their suspicion,

was committed to prison, and prosecuted under the notion of delinquency: After all the old jails were full, many new ones were erected; and even the ships were crowded with the royalists, both gentry and clergy, who languished below decks, and perished in those unhealthy confinements: Taxes, the heaviest, and of the most unusual nature, they imposed by an ordinance of the two houses: A commission for sequestration they voted; and they seized, wherever they had power, the revenues of all the King's party:<sup>5</sup> And knowing, that themselves and all their ministers, by resisting the prince were exposed to the penalties of law, they resolved, with a severe administration, to overcome these terrors, and retain the people in obedience, by penalties of a more immediate execution. In the beginning of this summer, a combination, formed against them in London, had obliged them to exert the plenitude of their authority.

Edmond Waller, the great refiner of English versification, was a member of the lower house; a man of considerable fortune, and not more distinguished by his poetical genius, than by his parliamentary talents, and by the politeness and elegance of his manners. As full of keen satyre and invective in his eloquence, as of tenderness and panegyric in his poetry, he caught the attention of his hearers, and exerted the utmost boldness in blaming those violent councils, by which the commons were governed. Finding all opposition within doors to be fruitless, he endeavored to form a party without, which might oblige the parliament to accept of reasonable conditions and restore peace to the nation. The charms of his conversation, joined to his character of courage and integrity, had procured him the intire confidence of Northumberland, Conway, and every eminent person of either sex who resided in London. Without reserve, they opened their breast to him, and expressed their detestation of the furious measures, pursued by the com-

5. The King afterwards copied from this example; but as the far greatest part of the nobility and landed gentry were his friends, he reaped much less profit from this measure.

mons, and their wishes, that some expedient could be found for stopping so impetuous a career. Tomkins, Waller's brother-in-law, and Chaloner, the intimate friend of Tomkins, had entertained like sentiments; and as the connexions of these two gentlemen lay chiefly in the city, they informed Waller, that the same abhorrence of war prevailed there, among all men of reason and moderation. Upon reflection, it seemed not impracticable, that a combination might be framed betwixt the lords and citizens; and, by mutual concert, the illegal taxes be refused, which the parliament, without the royal assent, imposed on the people. While the affair was in agitation, and lists were forming of such as they conceived to be well affected to their design; a servant of Tomkins, who had overheard their discourse, immediately carried the intelligence to Pym. Waller, Tomkins, and Chaloner were seized, and tried by a court-martial. They were all three condemned, and the two latter executed on gibbets, erected before their own doors. A covenant, as a test, was taken<sup>6</sup> by the lords and commons, and imposed on their army, and on all who lived within their quarters. Besides resolving to amend and reform their lives, the covenanters vow, that they never will lay down arms, so long as the papists, now in open war against the parliament, shall, by force of arms, be protected against justice; they express their abhorrence of the late conspiracy; and they promise to assist to the utmost the forces, raised by both houses, against the forces, levied by the King.

Waller, as soon as imprisoned, sensible of the mighty danger, into which he was fallen, was so seized with the dread of death, that all his former spirit deserted him; and he confessed whatever he knew, without sparing his most intimate friends, without regard to the sacred confidence reposed in him, without distinguishing betwixt the negligence of familiar conversation and the schemes of a regular conspiracy. With the most profound dissimulation, he counterfeited such remorse of conscience, that his trial was put off, out of mere christian-compassion, till he might

6. 6th of June.

recover the use of his understanding. Visits he invited from the ruling clergy of all sects; and while he expressed his own penitence, he received their devout exhortations with humility and reverence, as conveying clearer conviction and information, than in his life he had ever before attained. Presents too, of which, as well as of flattery, these holy men were not insensible, he distributed among them; as a small retribution for their prayers and ghostly council. And by all these artifices, more than from any regard to the beauty of his genius, of which, during that time of furious cant and faction, small account would be made, he prevailed so far as to have his life spared, and a fine of ten thousand pounds accepted in lieu of it.

The severity, exercised against the conspiracy or rather project of Waller, increased the authority of the parliament, and seemed to ensure them against like attempts for the future. But, by the progress of the King's arms, the defeat of Sir William Waller, the taking of Bristol, the siege of Gloucester, a cry for peace was renewed, and with more violence than ever. Crowds of women, with a petition for that purpose, flocked about the house, and were so clamorous and importunate, that orders were given for dispersing them; and some of the females were killed in the fray. Bedford, Holland, and Conway, had deserted the parliament, and had gone to Oxford; Clare and Lovelace had followed them: Northumberland had retired to his country-seat: Essex himself showed extreme dissatisfaction, and exhorted the parliament to make peace. The upper house sent down terms of accommodation more moderate than had hitherto been insisted on. It even passed by a majority among the commons, that these proposals should be transmitted to the King. The violent took the alarm. A petition against peace was framed in the city and presented by Pennington, the factious mayor. Multitudes attended him, and renewed all the former menaces against the moderate party.<sup>7</sup> The pulpits thundered, and rumors were spread of twenty thousand Irish, who had landed, and were to cut the

7. Clarendon, Hollis, &c.

throats of every protestant. The majority was turned to the other side; and all thoughts of pacification being dismissed, every preparation was made for resistance, and for the immediate relief of Gloucester, on which, the parliament were sensible, all their success in the war did so much depend.

Massey, being resolute to make a vigorous defence, and, having under his command a city and garrison, ambitious of the crown of martyrdom, had hitherto maintained the siege with courage and capacity, and had much retarded all the advances of the King's army. By continual sallies, he infested them in their trenches and gained sudden advantages over them: By disputing every inch of ground, he repressed the vigor and alacrity of their courage, elated by former successes. His garrison, however, was reduced to the last extremity; and he took care, from time to time, to inform the parliament, that, unless speedily relieved, he would be necessitated, from the extreme want of provisions and ammunition, to open his gates to the enemy.

The parliament, in order to repair their broken condition, and put themselves in a posture of defence, now exerted to the utmost their power and authority. They voted that an army should be levied under Sir William Waller, whom, notwithstanding his misfortunes, they loaded with extraordinary caresses. Having associated in their cause, the counties of Hertford, Essex, Cambridge, Norfolk, Suffolk, Lincoln, Huntington, they gave the Earl of Manchester a commission to be general of the association, and appointed an army to be levied under his command. But above all, they were intent that Essex's army, on which their whole fortune depended, should be put into a condition of marching against the King. Their preachers they afresh excited to furious declamations against the royal cause: Even the expedient of pressing, tho' abolished by a late law, for which they had strenuously contended, they now employed: And they engaged the city to send along four regiments of its militia to the relief of Gloucester. All shops, in the mean while, they ordered to be shut; and every man expected,

with the utmost anxiety, the event of that important enterprise.

Essex, carrying along with him a well appointed army of 14,000 men, took the road of Bedford and Leicester; and, tho' inferior in cavalry, yet, by the mere force of conduct and discipline, he passed over those open champaigne countries, and defended himself from the enemies' horse, who had advanced to meet him, and who infested him during his whole march. As he approached to Gloucester, the King was obliged to raise the siege, and open the way for Essex's entrance into that city. The necessities of the garrison were extreme. One barrel of powder was their whole stock of ammunition remaining; and their other provisions were in the same proportion. Essex had brought along military stores; and, with victuals of every kind, the neighboring country abundantly supplied him. The inhabitants had carefully concealed all provisions from the King's army, and pretending to be quite exhausted, had reserved their stores for that cause which so zealously they favored.

The chief difficulty still remained. A battle with the King's army, Essex dreaded from their great superiority of horse; and he resolved to return, if possible, without running that hazard. At Teukesbury, which was his first stage, he lay five days, and feigned by some preparations, to point towards Worcester. By a forced march, during the night, he reached Cirencester, and obtained the double advantage, of passing unmolested an open country, and of surprizing a convoy of provisions, which lay in that town. Without delay, he proceeded towards London; but, when he reached Newbury, he was surprized to find, that the King, by hasty marches, had arrived before him, and was already possessed of that place.

An action was now unavoidable; and Essex prepared for it with presence of mind and not without military conduct. On both sides the battle was fought with desperate valor and a steddy bravery. Tho' Essex's horse were several times broke by the King's, his infantry maintained themselves in firm array; and, besides giving a continued fire, they pre-

sented an invincible rampart of pikes against the furious impulse of Prince Rupert and those gallant troops of gentry, of which the royal cavalry were chiefly composed. The London militia especially, tho' utterly unacquainted with action, tho' drawn but a few days before from their ordinary occupations, yet, having exactly learned all military exercises, and being animated with unconquerable zeal for the cause, in which they were engaged, equalled, on this occasion, what could be expected from the most veteran forces. While the armies were engaged with the utmost ardor, night put an end to the action, and left the event undecided. Next morning, Essex proceeded on his march; and tho' his rear was once put into some disorder by an incursion of the King's horse, he reached London in safety, and received deserved applause for his conduct and success in the whole enterprize. The King followed him on his march, and having taken possession of Reading, after the Earl left it, he there established a garrison; and straitened, by its means, London and the quarters of the enemy.

In the battle of Newbury, on the part of the King, beside the Earls of Sunderland and Carnarvon, two Noblemen of very promising hopes; was unfortunately slain, to the great regret of every lover of ingenuity and virtue thro'out the kingdom, Lucius Cary, Lord Viscount Falkland, secretary of state. Before assembling the present parliament, this man, devoted to the pursuits of learning, and to the society of all the polite and elegant, had enjoyed himself in every pleasure, which a fine genius, a generous disposition, and an opulent fortune could afford. Called into public life, amidst all the attacks on regal usurpations he stood foremost, and displayed that masculine eloquence, and undaunted love of liberty, which, from his intimate acquaintance with the sublime spirits of antiquity, he had greedily imbibed. When civil convulsions proceeded to extremity, and it became requisite for him to choose his side; he tempered the ardor of his zeal, and embraced the defence of those limited powers, which remained to monarchy, and which he

esteemed requisite for the support of the English constitution. Still anxious, however, for his country, he seems to have dreaded the too prosperous success of his own party as much as of the enemy; and, among his intimate friends, often, after a deep silence, and frequent sighs, he would, with a sad accent, re-iterate the word, *Peace*. In excuse for the too free exposing of his person, which seemed unsuitable in a secretary, he alleged, that it became him to be more active than other men in all hazardous enterprizes, lest his impatience for peace might bear the imputation of cowardice or pusillanimity. From the commencement of the war his natural clearfulness and vivacity became clouded; and even his usual attention to dress, required by his birth and station, gave way to a negligence, which was easily observable. On the morning of the battle, in which he fell, he had shown some care for the adorning his person; and gave for a reason, that the enemy should not find his body in any slovenly, indecent situation. 'I am weary,' subjoined he, 'of the times, and foresee much misery to my country; but believe, that I shall be out of it 'ere night.' This excellent person was but thirty four years of age, when a period was put to his life.

The loss sustained on both sides, in the battle of Newbury, and the advanced season, obliged the armies to retire into winter-quarters.

In the north, during this summer, the great interest and popularity of the Earl, now created Marquis of Newcastle, had raised a very considerable force for the King; and great hopes of success were entertained from that quarter. There appeared, however, in opposition to him, two men, on whom the event of the war finally depended, and who began, about this time, to be remarked for their valor and military conduct. These were Sir Thomas Fairfax, son to the lord of that name, and Oliver Cromwel. The former gained a considerable advantage at Wakefield<sup>8</sup> over a detachment of royalists, and took General Goring prisoner: The latter obtained a victory at Gainsborow<sup>9</sup> over a party commanded by the

8. 21st of May. 9. 31st of July.

gallant Cavendish, who perished in the action. But both these defeats of the royalists were more than sufficiently compensated by the total rout of Lord Fairfax at Atherton moor,<sup>10</sup> and the dispersion of his whole army. After this victory, Newcastle, with an army of 15,000 men, sat down before Hull, of which Hotham was no longer governor. That gentleman and his son, partly from a jealousy of Lord Fairfax, partly from a repentance of their engagements against the King, had entered into a correspondence with Newcastle, and had expressed an intention of delivering Hull into his hands. But their conspiracy being discovered, they were arrested and sent prisoners to London; where, without any regard to their former services, they fell, both of them, victims to the severity of the parliament.

Newcastle, having carried on the attack of Hull for some time, was beat off by a sally of the garrison,<sup>11</sup> and suffered so much, that he thought proper to raise the siege. About the same time, Manchester, who advanced from the eastern associated counties, having joined Cromwel and young Fairfax, obtained a considerable victory over the royalists at Horn-Castle; where the two officers last mentioned gained great renown for their conduct and gallantry. And tho' fortune had thus ballanced her favors, the King's party still remained much superior in those parts of England; and had it not been for the garrison of Hull, which kept Yorkshire in awe, a conjunction of the northern forces, with the army in the south, had probably enabled the King, instead of entering on the unfortunate, perhaps imprudent, enterprize of Gloucester, to march directly to London, and put an end to the war.

While the military enterprizes were carried on with vigor in England, and the event became every day more doubtful, both parties cast their eyes towards the neighboring kingdoms, and sought assistance for the finishing that enterprize, in which their own forces experienced such furious contrast and opposition. The parliament had recourse to Scotland; the King, to Ireland.

10. 30th of June.    11. 12th of October.

When the Scotch covenanters obtained that end for which they so earnestly longed, the establishment of presbyterian discipline in their own country, they were not satisfied, but indulged still an ardent passion for propagating, by all methods, that mode of religion, in the neighboring kingdoms. Having flattered themselves, in the fervor of their zeal, that, by supernatural assistances, they would be enabled to carry their triumphant covenant to the gates of Rome itself, it behoved them first to render it prevalent in England, which already showed so prompt a disposition to receive it. Even in the articles of pacification, they expressed a desire of uniformity in worship with England; and the King, employing general expressions, had approved of this inclination, as pious and laudable. No sooner was there any appearance of a rupture, than the English parliament, in order to allure that nation into a close confederacy, openly declared their wishes of ecclesiastical reformation, and of imitating the example of their northern brethren. And when war was actually commenced, the same artifices were used; and the Scotch beheld, with the utmost impatience, a scene of action where they could not esteem themselves indifferent spectators. Should the King, they said, be able, by force of arms, to prevail over the parliament of England, and re-establish his authority in that powerful kingdom, he will undoubtedly retract all those concessions, which, with so many circumstances of violence and indignity, the Scotch have extorted from him. Beside a sense of his own interest and a regard to royal power, which has been entirely annihilated in his native country; his very passion for prelacy and for religious ceremonies must lead him to invade a church, which he has ever been taught to regard as antichristian and unlawful. Let us but consider who the persons are that compose the factions now so furiously engaged in arms. Does not the parliament consist of those very men, who have ever opposed all war with Scotland, who have punished the authors of our oppressions, who have obtained us the redress of every grievance, and who, with many honorable expressions, have conferred on

us an ample reward for our brotherly assistance? And is not the court full of papists, prelates, malignants; all of them zealous enemies to our religious model, and resolute to sacrifice their lives for their idolatrous establishments? Not to mention our own necessary security; can we better express our gratitude to heaven for that pure light, with which we are, above all nations, so eminently distinguished, than by conveying the same divine knowlege to our unhappy neighbors, who are swimming thro' an ocean of blood in order to attain it? These were in Scotland the topics of every conversation: With these doctrines the pulpits echoed: And the famous curse of Meroz, that curse so solemnly denounced and re-iterated, against neutrality and moderation, resounded from all quarters.<sup>12</sup>

The parliament of England had ever invited the Scotch, from the commencement of the civil dissensions, to interpose their mediation, which, they knew, would be so little favorable to the King: And the King, for that very reason, had ever endeavored, with the least offensive expressions, to decline it. Early this spring, Loudon, Lord chancellor, along with other commissioners, and attended by Henderson, a popular and intriguing preacher, was sent to the King at Oxford, and renewed the offer of mediation; but with the same success as before. The commissioners were also empowered to press the King on the article of religion, and to recommend to him the Scotch model of ecclesiastical worship and discipline. This was touching Charles in a very tender point: His honor, his conscience, as well as his interest, he believed to be intimately concerned in supporting prelacy and the liturgy. He begged the commissioners, therefore, to rest satisfied with the concessions which he had made to Scotland; and having ordered their own church according to their own principles, to leave their neighbors in the like liberty, and not to inter-meddle

12. Curse ye Meroz, said the angel of the Lord; curse ye bitterly the inhabitants thereof: because they came not to the help of the Lord, to the help of the Lord against the mighty. Judges, chap. V. ver. 23.

with affairs, of which they could not be supposed competent judges.

The divines of Oxford, secure, as they imagined, of a victory, by means of their authorities from church history, their citations from the fathers, and their spiritual arguments, desired a conference with Henderson, and undertook, by dint of reasoning, to convert that great apostle of the north: But Henderson, who had ever regarded as impious the least doubt with regard to his own principles, and who knew of a much better way for reducing opponents than the employing any theological topics, absolutely refused all disputation or controversy. The English divines went away, full of admiration at the blind assurance and bigotted prejudices of the man: He, on his part, was moved with equal wonder at their obstinate attachment to such gross errors and delusions.

By the concessions which the King had granted to Scotland, it became necessary for him to summon a parliament once in three years; and in June of the subsequent year, was fixed the period for the meeting of that assembly. Before that time elapsed, Charles flattered himself, that, by some decisive advantage, he would be able to reduce the English parliament to a reasonable submission, and might then expect with security the meeting of a Scotch parliament. Tho' earnestly sollicited by Loudon to summon presently that great council of the nation, he absolutely refused to give authority to men, who had already excited such dangerous commotions, and who showed still the same disposition to resist and invade his authority. The commissioners, therefore, not being able to prevail in any of their demands, desired the King's passport for London, where they proposed to confer with the English parliament; and being likeways denied this request, they returned with extreme dissatisfaction to Edinburgh.

The office of conservators of the peace was newly erected in Scotland, in order to maintain the confederacy betwixt the two kingdoms; and these, instigated by the clergy, were resolved, since they could not obtain the King's consent, to

summon, in his name, but by their own authority, a convention of estates; and to bereave their sovereign of this article, the only one which remained of his prerogative. Under pretext of providing for national peace, endangered by the neighborhood of English armies, was a convention called;<sup>13</sup> an assembly, which, tho' it meets with less solemnity, has the same authority as a parliament, in raising money and levying forces. Hamilton, and his brother the Earl of Laneric, who had been sent into Scotland, in order to oppose these measures, wanted either authority or sincerity; and passively yielded to the torrent. The general assembly of the church met along with the convention, and exercising an authority almost absolute over the whole civil power, made every political consideration yield to their theological zeal and prejudices.

The English parliament were, at that time, fallen into great distress, from the progress of the King's arms; and they gladly sent to Edinburgh commissioners, with ample powers, to treat of a nearer union and confederacy with the Scotch nation. The persons employed were the Earl of Rutland, Sir William Armyne, Sir Henry Vane the younger, Thomas Hatcher and Henry Darley, attended with Marshal and Nye, two clergymen of signal authority. In this negotiation, the man chiefly trusted to was Vane, who, in eloquence, address, capacity, as well as in art and dissimulation, was not surpassed by any one, even during that age, so famous for active talents. By his persuasion was formed at Edinburgh that SOLEMN LEAGUE AND COVENANT; which effaced all the former protestations and vows, taken in both kingdoms; and long maintained its credit and authority. This covenant, beside mutual defence against all opponents, bound the subscribers to endeavor, without respect of persons, the extirpation of popery and prelacy, superstition, heresy, schism, and profaneness; to maintain the rights and privileges of parliaments, along with the king's authority; and to discover and bring to justice all incendiaries and malignants.

13. 22d of June.

The subscribers to the covenant vowed also to preserve the reformed religion established in the church of Scotland; but by the artifice of Vane no more explicite declaration was made with regard to England and Ireland, than that these kingdoms should be reformed, according to the word of God and the example of the purest churches. The Scotch zealots, when prelacy was abjured, esteemed this expression quite free from ambiguity, and regarded their own model as the only one which corresponded, in any degree, to such a description: But that able politician had other views; and while he employed his great talents in over-reaching the presbyterians, and secretly laughed at their simplicity, he had blindly devoted himself to the maintainance of systems, still more absurd and more dangerous.

In the English parliament there remained some members, who, tho' they had been induced, either by private ambition or by zeal for civil liberty, to concur with the majority, still retained an attachment to the hierarchy and to the antient modes of worship. But in the present danger, which threatened their cause, all scruples were removed; and the covenant, by whose means alone, they could expect to obtain so considerable a re-inforcement, as the accession of the whole Scotch nation, was received without opposition. The parliament, therefore, having first subscribed it themselves, ordered it to be received by all who lived under their authority.

Great were the rejoicings among the Scotch, that they should be the happy instruments of extending the kingdom of Christ, and dissipating that profound darkness in which their neighboring nations were involved. The general assembly applauded this glorious imitation of the piety displayed by their ancestors, who, by three different applications, during the reign of Elizabeth, had endeavored to engage the English, by persuasion, to lay aside the use of the surplice, tippet, and corner cap. The convention too, in the height of their zeal, ordered every one to swear to this covenant, under the penalty of confiscation, beside what farther punishment it should please the ensuing parliament

to inflict on the refusers, as enemies to God, to the king, and to the kingdom. And being determined that the sword should carry conviction to all refractory minds, they prepared themselves, with great vigilance and activity, for their military enterprizes. By means of a hundred thousand pounds, which they received from England; by the hopes of good pay and warm quarters; not to mention men's favorable disposition towards the cause; they soon compleated their levies. And having added the troops which they had recalled from Ireland, they were ready, about the end of the year, to enter into England, under the command of their old general, Leven, with an army of above twenty thousand men.

The King, foreseeing this tempest which was gathering upon him, endeavored to secure himself by every expedient; and he cast his eyes towards Ireland, in hopes, that that kingdom, from which his cause had already received so much prejudice, might, at last, contribute somewhat towards his protection and security.

After the commencement of the Irish insurrection, the English parliament, tho' they undertook the suppression of it, had ever been too much engaged, either in military projects or expeditions at home, to take any effectual step towards the finishing that enterprize. They had entered indeed into a contract with the Scotch, for sending over an army of ten thousand men into Ireland; and in order to engage that nation into such an undertaking, beside the promise of pay, they agreed to put Caric-Fergus into their hands, and to invest their general with an authority quite independent of the English government. These troops, so long as they were allowed to remain, were useful, by diverting the force of the Irish rebels, and protecting in the north the small remnants of the British planters. But except this contract with the Scotch nation, all the other measures of the parliament were hitherto either absolutely insignificant, or tended rather to the prejudice of the protestant cause in Ireland. By continuing their furious persecution, and still more furious menaces against priests and papists, they ren-

dered the Irish catholics obstinate in their rebellion, and cut off all hopes of indulgence and toleration. By disposing before-hand of all the Irish forfeitures to subscribers or adventurers, they rendered all men of property desperate, and seemed to threaten a total extirpation of the natives. And while they thus infused spirit and animosity into the enemy, no measure was pursued, which could tend to support or encourage the protestants, who were reduced to the last extremity.

So great is the ascendant, which, from a long course of successes, the English has acquired over the Irish nation, that tho' the latter, when they receive military discipline among foreigners, are not surpassed by any European people, they have never, in their own country, been able to make any vigorous effort for the defence or recovery of their liberties. In many encounters, the English, under Lord More, Sir William St Leger, Sir Frederic Hamilton, and others, with great disadvantage of situation and numbers, had put the Irish to rout, and returned in triumph to Dublin. The siege of Tredah, the rebels raised, after an obstinate defence made by the garrison. Ormond had obtained two compleat victories, at Kilrush and Ross; and had brought relief to all the forts, which were besieged or blockaded in different parts of the kingdom. But notwithstanding all these successes, even the most common necessaries of life were wanting to the victorious armies. The Irish, in their wild rage against the British planters, had laid waste the whole kingdom, and were themselves totally unfit, from their barbarous sloth and ignorance, to raise any convenience of human life. During the course of six months, no supplies had come from England; except the fourth part of one small vessel's lading. Dublin, to save itself from starving, had been obliged to send the greatest part of its inhabitants to England. The army had little ammunition, scarce exceeding 40 barrels of powder; not even shoes or cloaths; and for want of food, the cavalry had been obliged to eat their own horses. And tho' the distresses of the Irish were not much inferior; beside that they were more

hardened against such extremities, it was but a melancholy prospect, that the two nations, while they continued their furious animosities, should make desolate that fertile island, which might serve to the subsistence and happiness of both.

By the interest chiefly and authority of Ormond, the justices and council of Ireland had fallen into an entire dependance on the King. Parsons, Temple, Loftus, and Meredith, who seemed to incline towards the opposite party, had been removed; and Charles had supplied their place by others better affected to his service. A committee of the commons, which had been sent over to Ireland, in order to conduct the affairs of that kingdom, had been excluded the council, in obedience to orders transmitted from the King. And these were reasons sufficient, beside the great difficulties under which they themselves labored, why the parliament were unwilling to send supplies to an army, which, tho' engaged in a cause they much favored, was entirely governed by their declared enemies.

The King, as he had neither money, arms, ammunition, nor provisions to spare from his own urgent wants; resolved to embrace an expedient, which might, at once, relieve the necessities of the Irish protestants, and contribute to the advancement of his affairs in England. A cessation with the rebels, he thought, would enable his subjects in Ireland to provide for their own support, and procure him the assistance of the army against the English parliament. But as a treaty with a nation, so odious for their religion and their barbarities, might be represented in very invidious colors, and renew all those calumnies with which he had been loaded; it was necessary to proceed with great caution in conducting that measure. A remonstrance from the army was made to the Irish council, representing their intolerable necessities, and craving permission to leave the kingdom: And if that was refused, *We must have recourse, they said, to that first and primary law, with which God has endowed all men; we mean the law of nature, which teaches every creature to preserve itself.* Memorials both to the King and parliament were transmitted by the justices and council, in

which their wants and dangers are strongly set forth; and tho' the general expressions in these memorials might perhaps be liable to exaggeration, yet, from the particular facts mentioned, from the confession of the English parliament, and from the very nature of things, it is apparent, that the Irish protestants were reduced to great extremities;<sup>14</sup> and it became prudent in the King, if not absolutely necessary, to embrace some expedient, which might secure them, for a time, from the ruin and misery with which they were threatened.

Accordingly, the King gave orders<sup>15</sup> to Ormond and the justices to conclude, for a year, a cessation with the council of Kilkenny, by whom the Irish were governed, and to leave both sides in possession of their present advantages. The parliament, whose business it was to find fault with every measure adopted by the opposite party, and who would not lose so fair an opportunity of reproaching the King with his favor for the Irish papists, exclaimed loudly against this cessation. Among other reasons, they insisted upon the divine vengeance, which England might justly dread for tolerating antichristian idolatry, under pretext of civil contracts and political agreement. Religion, tho' every day employed as the engine of their ambitious purposes, was supposed too sacred to be yielded up to the temporal interests or safety of kingdoms.

The army, after the cessation, there was little necessity, as well as no means, of subsisting in Ireland. The King ordered Ormond, who was entirely devoted to him to send over considerable bodies of it to England. Most of them continued in his service: But a small part of them, having fostered in Ireland a high animosity against the catholics, and hearing the King's party universally reproached with popery, soon after deserted to the parliament.

Some Irish catholics came over, along with these troops,

14. See farther Cartes Ormond, Vol iii. No. 113, 127, 128, 129, 134, 136, 141, 149, 158, 159. All these papers put it past doubt, that the necessities of the English army in Ireland were extreme.

15. 2d of September.

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and joined the King's army, where they continued the same cruelties and disorders, to which they had been accustomed. The parliament voted, that no quarter, in any action, should ever be granted them: But Prince Rupert, by using some reprizals, soon repressed this inhumanity.

## CHAP. VIII

*Invasion of the Scotch – Battle of Marston-moor – Battle of Cropredy-bridge – Essex's forces disarmed – Second battle of Newberry – Rise and character of the independents – Self-denying ordinance – Fairfax, Cromwel – Treaty of Uxbridge – Execution of Laud*

THE King had hitherto, during the course of the war, obtained many advantages over the parliament, and had raised himself from that low condition, in which he was at first placed, to be nearly upon an equal footing with his adversaries. Yorkshire, and all the northern counties, were subjected by the Marquis of Newcastle; and, excepting Hull, the parliament was master of no garrison in these quarters. In the west, Plymouth alone, having been in vain besieged by Prince Maurice, resisted the King's authority: And had it not been for the disappointment in the fatal enterprize of Gloucester, the royal garrisons had extended, without interruption, from one end of the kingdom to the other; and had occupied a greater extent of ground, than those of the parliament. Many of the royalists flattered themselves, that the same vigorous spirit, which had elevated them, to the present height of power, would still favor their progress, and obtain them a final victory over their antagonists: but those who judged more soundly, observed, that, beside the accession of the whole Scotch nation to the side of the parliament; the very principle, on which the royal successes were founded, was every day acquired, more and more, by the opposite party. The King's troops, full of gentry and nobility, had exerted a valor superior to their enemies, and had hitherto been successful in almost every encounter: But in proportion as the whole nation became warlike, by the continuance of civil discords, this advantage was more equally shared, and superior numbers, it was expected, must at last obtain the victory. The King's troops also, ill paid,

and destitute of every necessary, could not possibly be retained in equal discipline with the parliamentary forces, to whom all supplies were furnished from unexhausted stores and treasures. The severity of manners, so much affected by these zealous religionists, assisted their military institutions; and the rigid inflexibility of character, by which the austere reformers of church and state were distinguished, enabled the parliamentary chiefs to restrain their soldiers within stricter rules and more exact order. And while the King's officers indulged themselves in equal or greater licences, than those to which, during times of peace, they had been accustomed, they were apt, both to neglect their duty, and to set a pernicious example of disorder, to the soldiers under their command.

At the commencement of the civil wars, all Englishmen, who served abroad, were invited over, and treated with extraordinary respect and reverence: And most of them, being descended of good families, and by reason of their absence, unacquainted with the new principles, which depressed the dignity of the crown, had enlisted under the royal standard. But it is observable, that tho' the military profession requires great genius, and long experience, in the principal commanders, all its subordinate duties may be discharged by very ordinary talents, and from superficial practice. Citizens and country gentlemen soon became excellent officers; and the generals of greatest fame and capacity happened, all of them, to spring up on the side of the parliament. The courtiers and great nobility in the other party, checked the growth of any extraordinary genius among the subordinate officers; and every man there, as in a regular established government, was confined to the station, in which his birth had placed him.

The King, that he might make preparations, during the winter, for the ensuing campaign, summoned to Oxford all the members of either house, who adhered to his interests; and endeavored to avail himself of the name of parliament, so passionately cherished by the English nation. The house of peers was pretty full; and beside the nobility,

employed in different parts of the kingdom, it contained twice as many members as voted in Westminster. The house of commons consisted of about 140; which amounted not to above half of the other house of commons.

So extremely light had government hitherto lain upon the people, that the very name of *excise* was unknown to them; and among the other evils arising from these domestic wars, was the introduction of that impost into England. The parliament at Westminster having voted an excise on beer, wine, and other commodities; those at Oxford imitated the example, and conferred that revenue on the King. And in order to enable him the better to recruit his army, they granted him the sum of 100,000 pounds, to be levied by way of loan upon the subject. The King circulated privy seals, countersigned by the speakers of both houses, requiring the loan of particular sums, from such persons as lived within his quarters. Neither party had as yet got above the pedantry of reproaching its antagonist with these illegal measures.

The Westminster parliament passed a whimsical ordinance, commanding all the inhabitants of London and the neighborhood, to retrench a meal a-week, and to pay the value of it for the support of the public cause. 'Tis easily imagined, that, provided the money was paid, they troubled themselves very little about the execution of their ordinance.

Such was the King's situation, that, in order to restore peace to the nation, he had no occasion to demand any other terms, than to restore the laws and constitution, to replace him in the same rights which had ever been enjoyed by his predecessors, and to re-establish, on its antient basis, the whole frame of government, civil as well as ecclesiastical. And that he might facilitate an end, seemingly so desirable, he offered to employ means equally popular, an universal act of oblivion, and a toleration or indulgence to tender consciences. Nothing therefore could contribute more to his interest, than every discourse of peace, and every discussion of the conditions, upon which that blessing could be obtained. And for this reason, on all occasions, he solicited a treaty, and desired a conference and mutual exami-

## *Charles I*

nation of pretensions, even when he entertained no hopes, that any conclusion could possibly result from it.

For like reasons, the parliament wisely avoided, as much as they could, all advances towards negotiation, and were cautious not to expose too easily to censure those high terms, which their apprehensions or their ambition made them previously demand of the King. Tho' their partizans were blinded with the thickest veil of religious prejudices, they dreaded to bring their pretensions to the test, or lay them open before the whole nation. In opposition to the sacred authority of the laws, to the venerable precedents of many ages, they were ashamed to plead nothing but fears and jealousies, which were not avowed by the constitution, and to which, neither the personal character of Charles, so full of virtue, nor his condition, so deprived of all independent authority, seemed to afford any reasonable foundation. Grievances which had been fully redressed; powers, either legal or illegal, which had been entirely abandoned; it seemed unpopular, and invidious, and ungrateful, any farther to insist on.

That he might abate the universal veneration, paid to the name of parliament, the King had issued a declaration, where he set forth all the tumults, by which himself and his partizans in both houses, had been driven from London; and he thence inferred, that the assembly at Westminster was no longer a free parliament, and, till its liberty was restored, was intitled to no authority. As this declaration was an obstacle to all treaty, some contrivance seemed requisite, in order to elude it.

A letter was wrote to the Earl of Essex, and subscribed by the Prince, the Duke of Yorke, and forty three noblemen. They there exhort him to be an instrument for restoring peace, and to promote that happy end with those, by whom he was employed. Essex, tho' much disgusted with the parliament, tho' apprehensive of the extremities to which they were driving, tho' desirous of any reasonable peace; yet was still more resolute to preserve an honorable fidelity to the trust reposed in him. He replied, that as the

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paper sent him, neither contained any address to the two houses of parliament, nor any acknowledgement of their authority, he could not communicate it to them. Like proposals were reiterated by the King, during the ensuing campaign, and met still with a like answer from Essex.

In order to make another trial for a treaty, the King, this spring, sent a letter directed to the lords and commons of parliament assembled at Westminster: But as he also mentioned, in the letter, the lords and commons of parliament assembled at Oxford, and declared that his scope and intention was to make provision how all the members of both houses might securely meet in a full and free convention; the parliament, clearly perceiving the conclusion which was implied, refused all treaty upon such terms. And the King, who knew how small hopes there were of concluding peace, would not abandon the pretensions, which he had assumed, nor acknowlege the two houses, more openly, for a free parliament.

This winter the famous Pym died; a man as much hated by the one party, as respected by the other. At London, he was considered as the victim to national liberty, who had abridged his life by incessant labors for the interest of his country: At Oxford, he was believed to have been struck with an uncommon disease, and to have been consumed with vermine; as a mark of divine vengeance, for his multiplied crimes and treasons. He had been so little studious of improving his private fortune in those civil wars, of which he had been one chief instrument, that the parliament thought themselves obliged, out of gratitude, to pay the debts, which he had contracted.<sup>1</sup> We now return to the military operations, which, during winter, were carried on with vigor in several places, notwithstanding the severity of the season.

The forces, brought from Ireland, were landed at Mostyne in North-Wales; and being put under the command of Lord Biron, they took the castles of Lewarden, Beeston, Acton, and Dedington house. No place in Cheshire or the

i. Journ. 13th of February 1643.

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neighborhood, now held for the parliament, except Nantwich: And to this town Biron laid siege during the depth of winter. Sir Thomas Fairfax, alarmed at so considerable a progress, assembled an army of 4,000 men in Yorkshire, and having joined Sir William Brereton, was approaching to the camp of the royalists. Biron and his soldiers, elated with successes obtained in Ireland, had entertained the most profound contempt for the parliamentary forces; a disposition, which, if confined to the army, may be regarded as a good presage of victory; but if it extend to the general, is the most probable forerunner of a defeat. Fairfax suddenly attacked the camp of the royalists. The swelling of the river by a thaw divided one part of the army from the other. That part exposed to Fairfax, being beat from their post, retired into the church of Acton, and were all taken prisoners: The other retreated with precipitation. And thus was dissipated or rendered useless that body of forces, which had been drawn from Ireland; and the parliamentary party revived in those north-west counties of England.

The invasion from Scotland was attended with consequences of much greater importance. Having summoned in vain Newcastle, which was fortified by the vigilance of Sir Thomas Glenham, the Scotch passed the Tyne; and faced the Marquis of Newcastle, who lay at Durham with an army of 14000 men. After some military operations, in which that general reduced the Scotch to difficulties for forrage and provisions, he received intelligence of a great disaster, which had befallen his forces in Yorkshire. Colonel Bellasis, whom he had left with a considerable body of troops, was totally routed at Selby, by Sir Thomas Fairfax, who had returned from Cheshire, with his victorious forces. Afraid of being enclosed betwixt two armies, Newcastle retreated; and Leven having joined Lord Fairfax, they sat down before Yorke, in which the army of the royalists had shut up themselves. But as the Scotch and parliamentary forces, were not numerous enough to beleaguer so large a town, divided by a river, they contented themselves to incommodate it by a loose blockade; and

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affairs remained, for some time, in suspense betwixt these opposite armies.

During this winter and spring, other parts of the kingdom had also been harrassed with war. Hopton, having assembled an army of 14,000 men, endeavored to break into Sussex, Kent, and the southern association, which seemed well disposed to receive him. Waller fell upon him at Cherington, and gave him a defeat<sup>2</sup> of considerable importance. In another part, siege being laid to Newark, Rupert prepared himself for relieving a town of such consequence, which alone preserved the communication betwixt the King's southern and northern quarters. With a small force, but that animated by his active courage, he broke thro' the enemy, relieved the town, and totally dissipated that army of the parliament.<sup>3</sup>

But tho' fortune seemed to have divided her favors betwixt the parties, the King found himself, in the main, a considerable loser by this winter-campaign; and he prognosticated a still worse event from the ensuing summer. The preparations of the parliament were great and much exceeded the slender resources, of which he was possessed. In the eastern association, they levied 14,000 men, under the Earl of Manchester, seconded by Cromwel. An army of ten thousand men under Essex; another of nearly the same force under Waller, were assembled in the neighborhood of London. The former was destined to oppose the King: The latter was appointed to march into the west, where Prince Maurice, with a small army which went continually to decay, was spending his time in vain before Lyme, an inconsiderable town upon the sea-coast. The utmost efforts of the King could not raise above ten thousand men at Oxford; and on their sword chiefly, during the campaign, were these to depend for subsistence.

The Queen, terrified with the dangers, which every way environed her, and afraid of being enclosed at Oxford, in the middle of the kingdom, fled to Exeter, where, she hoped, in tranquillity to bear the child, of which she was now

2. 29th of March. 3. 21st of March.

## *Charles I*

pregnant, and from whence she had an easy escape into France, if pressed by the forces of the enemy. She knew the implacable hatred, which, on account of her religion and her credit with the King, the parliament had all along borne her. Last summer, the commons had sent up to the peers an impeachment of high treason against her; because, in his utmost distresses, she had assisted her husband with arms and ammunition, which she had bought in Holland. And had she fallen into their hands, neither her sex, she knew, nor high station, would protect her against insults, at least, if not danger, from those fierce republicans, who so little affected to conduct themselves by the maxims of gallantry and politeness.

From the beginning of these dissensions, the parliament, 'tis remarkable, had, in all things, assumed an extreme ascendant over their sovereign, and had displayed a violence and arrogated an authority, which, on his side, would not have been compatible, either with his temper or situation. While he spoke perpetually of pardoning all *Rebels*; they talked of nothing but the punishment of *Delinquents* and *Malignants*: While he offered a toleration and an indulgence to tender consciences; they threatened the utter extirpation of prelacy: To his professions of lenity, they opposed declarations of rigor: And the more the antient tenor of the laws inculcated a respectful subordination to the crown, the more careful were they, by their lofty pretensions, to cover that defect, under which they labored.

Their great advantages in the north seemed to second their ambition, and finally to promise success to their unwarrantable enterprizes. Manchester, having taken Lincoln, had united his army to those of Leven and Fairfax; and Yorke was now closely besieged by their combined forces. That town, tho' vigorously defended by Newcastle, was reduced to great extremity; and the parliamentary generals, after enduring great losses and fatigue, flattered themselves that all their labors would at last be crowned by that important conquest. On a sudden, they were alarmed with the

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approach of Rupert. That gallant Prince, having vigorously exerted himself in Lancashire and Cheshire, had collected a considerable army; and joining Sir Charles Lucas, who commanded Newcastle's horse, hastened to the relief of Yorke with an army of 20,000 men. The Scotch and parliamentary generals raised the siege, and drawing up on Marston-moor, proposed to give battle to the royalists. Rupert approached the town by another quarter, and interposing the river Ouse, betwixt him and the enemy, safely conjoined his forces to those of Newcastle. The Marquis endeavored to persuade him, that, having so successfully effected his purpose, he should be contented with the present advantage, and leave the enemy, now much diminished by their losses, and discouraged by their ill success, to dissolve by those mutual dissensions, which had taken place among them. The Prince, whose martial disposition was not sufficiently tempered with prudence, nor softened by complaisance, pretending a positive order from the King, without deigning to consult with Newcastle, whose great merit and services deserved better treatment, immediately gave orders for battle, and drew out the whole army to Marston-moor. This action was obstinately disputed betwixt the most numerous armies, which were engaged during the whole course of these wars; nor were the forces on both sides much different in their number. Fifty thousand British troops were led to mutual slaughter; and the victory seemed long undecided betwixt them. Rupert, who commanded the right wing of the royalists, was opposed to Cromwel,<sup>4</sup> who conducted the choice troops of the parliament, enured to danger under that determined leader, animated by zeal, and confirmed by the most rigid discipline. After a sharp combat, the cavalry of the royalists gave way; and the infantry, who stood next them, were likeways borne down, and put to flight. Newcastle's regiment alone, resolute to conquer or to perish, obstinately kept their ground, and maintained, by their dead bodies, the same order, in which they had at first been arranged. In the

4. Rush. part. 3. vol. ii. p. 633.

## *Charles I*

other wing, Sir Thomas Fairfax and Collonel Lambert, along with some troops, broke thro' the royalists; and, transported by the fury of pursuit, soon reached their victorious friends, engaged also in pursuit of the enemy. But after that tempest was past, Lucas, who commanded the royalists in this wing, restoring order to his broken forces, made a furious attack on the parliamentary cavalry, threw them into disorder, pushed them upon their own infantry, and put that whole wing to rout. When ready to seize on their carriages and baggage, he perceived Cromwel, who was now returned from pursuit of the other wing. Both sides were not a little surprised to find that they must again renew the combat for that victory, which each of them thought they had already obtained. The front of the battle was now exactly counterchanged, and each army occupied the ground, which had been possessed by the enemy at the beginning of the day. This second battle was equally furious and desperate as the first: But after the utmost efforts of courage by both parties, victory wholly inclined to the side of the parliament. The Prince's train of artillery was taken; and his whole army pushed off the field of battle.

This event was, in itself, a mighty blow to the King; but proved much more fatal in its consequences. The Marquis of Newcastle was intirely lost to the royal cause. That Nobleman, the ornament of the court and of his order, had been engaged, contrary to the natural bent of his disposition, into these military operations, merely by a high sense of honor and a personal regard to his master. From his determined valor, the dangers of war were disregarded: Its fatigues were oppressive to his natural indolence. Municifent and generous in his expence; polite and elegant in his taste; courteous and humane in his behavior; he brought a great accession of friends and of credit to the party, which he embraced. But amidst all the hurry of action, his inclinations were secretly drawn to the soft arts of peace, in which he took delight; and the charms of poetry, music, and conversation stole him often from his rougher occupations. Sir William Davenant, an ingenious poet, he named

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his lieutenant general: The other persons, in whom he placed confidence, were more the instruments of his refined pleasures, than qualified for the business which they undertook: And the severity and application, requisite to the support of discipline, were qualities of which he was intirely devoid.

When Prince Rupert, contrary to his advice, resolved on this battle, and issued all orders without communicating them to him; he took the field, but, he said, intirely as a volunteer; and, except by his personal courage, which shone out with lustre, he had no share in the action. Enraged to find, that all his successful labors were rendered abortive by one act of fatal temerity, terrified with the prospect of renewing all his pains and fatigue, he resolved no longer to maintain the few resources which remained to a desperate cause and thought, that the same regard to honor, which had at first called him to arms, now required him to abandon a party, where he met with such unworthy treatment. Next morning early, he sent word to the Prince, that he was instantly to leave the kingdom; and without delay, he went to Scarborow, where he found a vessel, which carried him beyond seas. During the ensuing years, till the restoration, he lived abroad in great necessity, and saw with indifference his opulent fortune sequestered by those who assumed the government of England. By submission or composition, he disdained to mark obeisance to their usurped authority; and the least favorable censors of his merit allowed, that the fidelity and services of a whole life, had sufficiently atoned for one rash action, into which his passion had betrayed him.

Prince Rupert with equal precipitation drew off the remains of his army, and retired into Lancashire. Glenham, in a few days, was obliged to surrender Yorke; and he marched out his garrison with all the honors of war. Lord Fairfax, remaining in the town, established his government in that whole county, and sent a thousand horse into Lancashire, to join with the parliamentary forces in that quarter, and attend the motions of Prince Rupert: The Scotch army

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marched northwards, in order to join with the Earl of Calendar, who was advancing with ten thousand additional forces; and to reduce the town of Newcastle, which they took by storm: The Earl of Manchester, along with Cromwell, to whom the fame of this great victory was chiefly ascribed, and who was wounded in the action, returned to the eastern association, in order to recruit his army.

While these events passed in the north, the King's affairs in the south were conducted with more success and more ability. Ruthven, a Scotchman, who had been created Earl of Brentford, acted, under the King, as general.

The parliament soon compleated their two armies commanded by Essex and Waller. The great zeal of the city facilitated this undertaking. Many speeches, by the parliamentary leaders, were made to the citizens, in order to excite their ardor. Hollis, in particular, exhorted them not to spare, on this important occasion, either their purses, their persons or their prayers; and they were sufficiently liberal, it must be confessed, in all these contributions. The two generals had orders to march with their combined armies towards Oxford; and, if the King shut himself up in that city, to lay siege to it, and by one enterprize put a period to the war. The King, leaving a great garrison in Oxford, passed with dexterity betwixt the two armies, which had taken Abingdon and had enclosed him on both sides.<sup>5</sup> He marched towards Worcester; and Waller received orders from Essex to follow him and watch his motions; while he himself marched into the west, in quest of Prince Maurice. Waller had approached within two miles of the royal camp, and was only separated from it by the Severn, when he received intelligence, that the King was advanced to Beudly, and directed his course towards Shrewsbury. In order to prevent him, Waller presently dislodged, and hastened by quick marches to that city: When the King, suddenly returning upon his own foot-steps, reached Oxford; and having reinforced his army from that garrison, now in his turn marched out in search of Waller. The two armies

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faced each other at Cropredy-bridge near Banbury; but the Charwell ran betwixt them. Next day, the King dislodged and marched towards Daventry. Waller ordered a considerable body to pass the bridge, with an intention of falling on the rear of the royalists. He was repulsed, routed, and pursued with considerable loss. Stunned and disheartened with this blow, his army decayed and melted away by desertion; and the King thought that he might safely leave it, and march westward against Essex. That general, having obliged Prince Maurice to raise the siege of Lyme, having taken Weymouth and Taunton, advanced still in his conquests, and met with no equal contrast or opposition. The King followed him, and having re-inforced his army from all quarters, appeared in the field with an army superior to the enemy. Essex, retreating into Cornwall, informed the parliament of his danger, and desired them to send an army, which might fall on the King's rear. General Middleton received a commission to execute that service; but came too late. Essex's army, cooped up in a narrow corner at Lestithiel, deprived of all forrage and provisions, and seeing no prospect of succor, was reduced to the last extremity. The King pressed them on one side; Prince Maurice on another; Sir Richard Granville on a third. Essex, Robarts, and some of the principal officers, escaped in a boat to Plymouth: Balfour with his horse passed the King's guards, in a deep mist, and got safely to the garrisons of his own party. The foot under Skippon were obliged to surrender their arms, artillery, baggage and ammunition; and being conducted to the parliament's quarters, were dismissed. By this advantage, which was much boasted of, the King, beside the honor of the enterprize, obtained what he stood extremely in need of: The parliament, having preserved the men, lost what they could easily repair.

No sooner did this news arrive in London, than the committee of the two kingdoms voted thanks to Essex for his fidelity, courage, and conduct; and this method of proceeding, no less politic than magnanimous, the parliament preserved thro' the whole course of the war. Equally indul-

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gent to their friends and rigorous to their enemies, they employed, with success, these two powerful engines of reward and punishment, in confirmation of their authority.

That the King might have less reason to exult in the advantages, which he had obtained in the west, the parliament opposed to him very numerous forces. Having armed anew Essex's subdued, but not disheartened troops, they ordered Manchester and Cromwel to march with their recruited forces from the eastern association; and conjoining their armies to those of Waller and Middleton, as well as of Essex, offer battle to the King. At Newberry, where Charles chose his post, they attacked him with great vigor; and that town was a second time the scene of the bloody animosities of the English. Essex's soldiers, exhorting one another to repair their broken honor, and revenge the disgrace of Lestithiel, made an impetuous assault on the royalists; and having recovered some of their cannon, lost in Cornwall, could not forbear embracing them with tears of joy. Tho' the King's troops defended themselves with great valor, they were overborne by numbers; and the night came very seasonably to their relief, and prevented a total overthrow. Immediately, Charles, having left his baggage and cannon in Dennington castle, near Newberry, retreated to Wallingford, and from thence to Oxford. There, Prince Rupert and the Earl of Northampton joined him, with considerable bodies of cavalry. Strengthened with his reinforcement, he ventured to advance towards the enemy, now employed before Dennington castle. Essex, detained by sickness, had not joined the army; since his misfortune in Cornwall. Manchester, who commanded, tho' his forces were much superior to those of the King, declined an engagement, and rejected Cromwel's advice, who earnestly pressed him not to neglect so favorable an opportunity of finishing the war. The King's army, by bringing off their cannon from Dennington-house, in the face of the enemy, seemed sufficiently to repair the honor, which they had lost at Newberry; and Charles having the satisfaction to excite, betwixt Manchester and Cromwel, equal animosities with

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those which formerly took place betwixt Essex and Waller, distributed his army into winter-quarters.

Those contests among the parliamentary generals, which had disturbed their military operations, were renewed in London during the winter; and each being supported by his own faction, their mutual reproaches and accusations agitated the whole city and parliament. There had long prevailed, in that party, a secret distinction, which, tho' the dread of the King's power had hitherto suppressed it, yet, in proportion as the hopes of success became nearer and more immediate, began to discover itself, with high contest and animosity. The Independents, who had, at first, taken shelter and concealed themselves under the wings of the PRESBYTERIANS, now evidently appeared a distinct party, and betrayed very different views and pretensions. We must here endeavor to explain the genius of this party, and of its leaders, who henceforth occupy the scene of action.

During those times, when the fanatical spirit met with such honor and encouragement, and was the immediate means of all distinction and preferment; it was impossible to set bounds to these holy fervors, or confine within any natural limits, what was directed towards an infinite and a supernatural object. Every man, as prompted by the warmth of his temper, excited by emulation, or supported by his habits of hypocrisy, endeavored to distinguish himself beyond his fellows, and to arrive at a higher pitch of saintship and perfection. In proportion to its degrees of fanaticism, each sect became dangerous and destructive; and as the independents went a note higher than the presbyterians, they could less be restrained within any bounds of temper and moderation. From this distinction, as from a first principle, were derived, by a necessary consequence, all the other differences of these two sects.

The independents rejected all ecclesiastical establishments, and would admit of no church-courts, no government among pastors, no interposal of the magistrate in spiritual concerns, no fixed encouragement annexed to any system of doctrines or opinions. According to their principles, each

congregation, united voluntarily and by spiritual ties, composed, within itself, a separate church, and exercised a jurisdiction, but one devoid of temporal sanctions, over its own pastor and its own members. The election alone of the congregation was sufficient to bestow the sacerdotal character; and as all essential distinction was denied betwixt the laity and the clergy, no ceremony, no institution, no vocation, no laying on of hands, was supposed, as in all other churches, to be requisite in order to convey a right to the holy order. The fanaticism of the presbyterians led them to shake off the authority of prelates, to reject the restraint of liturgies, to retrench ceremonies, to limit the riches and authority of the priestly office: The fanaticism of the independents, exalted to a higher pitch, abolished all ecclesiastical government, disdained all creeds and systems, rejected every ceremony, and confounded each rank and order. The soldier, the merchant, the mechanic, indulging the fervors of zeal, and guided by the illapses of the spirit, gave up himself to an inward and superior direction, and was consecrated, in a manner, by an immediate intercourse and communication with Heaven.

The catholics, pretending to an infallible guide, had justified, upon that principle, their doctrine and practice of persecution: The presbyterians, imagining that such clear and certain tenets, as they themselves adopted, could be rejected only from a criminal and pertinacious obstinacy, had hitherto gratified, to the full, their bigotted zeal in a like doctrine and practice: The independents, from the extremity of the same zeal, were conducted into the milder principles of toleration. Their mind, set afloat in the wide sea of inspiration, could confine itself within no certain limits; and the same variations, in which a fanatic indulged himself, he was apt, by a natural train of thinking, to extend to others. Of all christian sects, this was the first, which, during its prosperity, as well as adversity, always adopted the principle of toleration; and, 'tis remarkable, that so reasonable a doctrine owed its origin, not to reasoning, but to the height of extravagance and enthusiasm.

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Popery and prelacy, alone, whose genius verged towards superstition, the independents were inclined to treat with rigor. The enthusiastic doctrines too of fate or destiny, they were apt to esteem essential to all religion. In these rigid opinions, the whole sectaries, amidst all their other differences, unanimously concurred.

The political system of the independents kept pace exactly with their religious. Not contented with confining, to very narrow limits, the power of their sovereign, and reducing the king to the rank of first magistrate; which was the project of the presbyterians; this sect, more ardent in the pursuit of liberty, aspired to a total abolition of the monarchy, and even of the aristocracy; and projected an intire equality of rank and order, in a republic, quite free and independent. In consequence of this scheme, they were declared enemies to all proposals for peace, except on such terms as, they knew, it was impossible to obtain; and they adhered to that maxim, which is, in the main, prudent and political, that whoever draws his sword against his sovereign, should throw away the scabbard. By terrifying others with the fear of vengeance from the injured prince, they had engaged greater numbers into the opposition against peace, that had adopted their other principles with regard to government and religion. And the great success, which had attended the arms of the parliament, and the greater, which was soon expected, confirmed them still further in this obstinacy.

Sir Harry Vane, Oliver Cromwel, Nathaniel Fiennes, and Oliver Sir John, the sollicitor-general, were regarded as the leaders of the independents. The Earl of Essex, disgusted with a war, of which he began to foresee the pernicious consequences, adhered to the presbyterians, and promoted every reasonable plan of accommodation. The Earl of Northumberland, fond of his rank and dignity, regarded with horror a scheme, which, if it took place, would confound himself and his family with the lowest in the kingdom. The Earls of Warwic, and Denbigh, Sir Philip Stapleton, Sir William Waller, Hollis, Massey, Whitelocke, Mainard,

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Glyn, had embraced the same sentiments. In the parliament, a considerable majority, and a much greater in the nation, were attached to the presbyterian party; and it was only by means of cunning and deceit at first, and afterwards of violence, that the independents could entertain any hopes of success.

The Earl of Manchester, provoked at the violent impeachment, which the King had lodged against him, had long forwarded the war with great alacrity; but, being a man of humanity and principles, the view of public calamities, and the prospect of a total subversion of government, began to moderate his ardor, and inclined him to promote peace on any safe or honorable terms. He was even suspected, in the field, not to have pushed to the utmost against the King the advantages, obtained by the arms of the parliament; and Cromwel, in the public debates, revived the accusation, that he had wilfully neglected at Dennington castle, a favorable opportunity of finishing the war by a total defeat of the royalists. ‘I showed him evidently,’ said Cromwel, ‘how this success might be obtained; and only desired leave, with my own brigade of horse, to charge the King’s army in their retreat; leaving it in the Earl’s choice, if he thought proper, to remain neuter with the rest of his forces: But, notwithstanding all importunity, he positively and obstinately refused his consent; and gave no other reason but that, if we met with a defeat, there was an end of our pretensions: We should all be rebels and traitors, and be executed and forfeited by the law.’

Manchester, by way of recrimination, informed the parliament, that at another time, Cromwel having proposed some scheme, which, it seemed improbable, the parliament would agree to, he insisted and said, *My Lord, if you will stick firm to honest men, you shall find yourself at the head of an army, which will give law both to king and parliament.* ‘This discourse,’ continued Manchester, ‘made the greater impression on me, because I knew the lieutenant-general to be a man of very deep designs; and he has even ventured to tell me, that it never would be well with

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England till I was Mr Montague, and there was ne'er a lord or peer in the kingdom.' So full was Cromwel of these republican projects, that, notwithstanding his habits of profound hypocrisy, he could not so carefully guard his expressions, but that sometimes his favorite notions would escape him.

These violent dissensions brought matters to extremity, and pushed the independents to the execution of their designs. The present generals, they thought, were more desirous of protracting than finishing the war; and having entertained a scheme for preserving still some ballance in the constitution, they were afraid of intirely subduing the King, and reducing him to a condition, where he should be intitled to ask no concessions. A new model alone of the army would bring compleat victory to the parliament, and free the nation from those calamities, under which it labored. But how to effect this project was the difficulty. The authority, as well as merits of Essex, were very great with the parliament. Not only he had served them all along with the most exact and scrupulous honor: It was, in some measure, to be ascribed to his popularity, that they had ever been enabled to levy an army or make head against the royal cause. Manchester, Warwic, and the other commanders had likeways great credit with the public; nor were there any hopes of prevailing over them, but by laying the plan of an oblique and artificial attack, which would conceal the real purpose of their antagonists. The Scotch nation and Scotch commissioners, jealous of the progress of the independents, were a new obstacle; which, without the utmost art and subtlety, it would be difficult to surmount. The methods by which this intrigue was conducted, are so singular, and mark so well the genius of the age, that we shall give a detail of them, as they are delivered by Lord Clarendon.

A fast, on the last Wednesday of every month, had, at the beginning of these commotions been ordered by the parliament; and their preachers, on that day, kept alive, by their vehement declamations, the popular prejudices enter-

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tained against the King, against prelacy, and against popery. The King, that he might combat the parliament with their own weapons, appointed likeways a monthly fast, where the people should be instructed in the duties of loyalty and of submission to the higher powers; and he chose the second Friday of every month for the devotion of the royalists. It was now proposed and carried in parliament, by the independents, that a more solemn fast should be voted; when they should implore the divine assistance for extricating them from those perplexities, in which they were at present involved. On that day, the preachers, after many political prayers, took care to treat of the reigning divisions in the parliament, and ascribed them intirely to the selfish ends, pursued by the members. In their hands, they said, are lodged all the considerable commands of the army, all the profitable offices in the civil administration: And while the nation is falling every day into poverty, and groans under an insupportable load of taxes; these men multiply possessions on possessions, and will, in a little time, be masters of all the riches in the kingdom. That such persons, who fatten in the calamities of their country, will ever embrace any effectual measure for bringing them to a period, or ensuring a final success to the war, cannot reasonably be expected. Lingering expedients alone will be pursued: And the operations in the field concurring, in the same pernicious end, with the deliberations of the cabinet; civil commotions will, for ever, be perpetuated in the nation. After exaggerating these disorders, the ministers fell again to their prayers; and besought the Lord that he would take his own work into his own hand; and if the instruments, whom he had hitherto employed, were not worthy to bring, to a conclusion, so glorious a design, that he would inspire others more fit, who might perfect what was begun, by establishing true religion, and putting a speedy period to the public miseries.

On the day subsequent to these devout animadversions, when the parliament met, a new spirit appeared in the looks of many. Sir Henry Vane told the commons, That, if ever

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God had appeared to them, it was in the holy ordinances of yesterday: That, as he was credibly informed by many, who had been auditors in different congregations, the same lamentations and discourses, which the godly preachers had made before them, had been heard in other churches: That so remarkable a concurrence could proceed only from the immediate operation of the Holy Spirit: That he therefore besought them, in vindication of their own honor, in consideration of their duty to God and their country, to lay aside all private ends, and renounce every office, attended with profit or advantage: That the absence of so many members, occupied in different employments, had rendered the house extremely thin, and diminished the authority of their determinations: And that he could not forbear, for his part, the accusing himself as one who enjoyed a gainful office, that of treasurer of the navy; and tho' he was possessed of it before the civil commotions, and owed it not to the favor of the parliament, yet was he ready to resign it, and to sacrifice, to the welfare of his country, every consideration of private interest and advantage.

Cromwel acted next his part, and commended the preachers for having dealt with them plainly and impartially, and told them their errors, of which they were so unwilling to be instructed. Tho' they dwelt on many things, he said, on which he had never before reflected; yet, upon revolving them, he could not but confess, that, till there was a perfect reformation in these particulars, nothing which they undertook could possibly prosper. The parliament, no doubt, continued he, had done wisely in the commencement of the war, to engage several of their members in the most dangerous parts of it; and to satisfy the nation, that they intended to share all hazards with the meanest of the people. But affairs are now changed. During the progress of military operations, there have arisen, in the parliamentary armies, many excellent officers, who are qualified for higher commands than they are now possessed of. And tho' it becomes not men, engaged in such a cause, *to put trust in the arm of flesh*, yet he could assure them, that

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their troops contained generals, fit to command in any enterprize of Christendom. The army indeed, he was sorry to say, did not correspond, by its discipline, to the merit of the officers; nor were there any hopes, till the present vices and disorders, which prevail among the soldiers, were repressed by a new model, that their forces would ever be attended with signal success in any undertaking.

In opposition to this reasoning of the independents, many of the presbyterians showed the inconvenience and dangers of the projected alteration. Whitelocke, in particular, a man of honor, who loved his country, tho', in every change of government, he always adhered to the ruling power, said, That, beside the ingratitude of discarding, and that by fraud and subtlety, so many noble persons, to whom the parliament had hitherto owed its chief support; they would find it extremely difficult to supply the place of men, now formed by experience to command and authority: That the rank alone, possessed by such as were members of either house, prevented envy, retained the army in obedience, and gave weight to military orders: That greater confidence could be reposed in men of family and fortune, than in mere adventurers, who might entertain separate views from those embraced by the persons, who employed them: That no maxim of policy was more undisputed, than the necessity of preserving an inseparable connexion betwixt the civil and military powers, and retaining the latter in strict subordination to the former: That the Greeks and Romans, the wisest and most passionate lovers of liberty, had ever entrusted to their senators the command of armies, and had maintained an unconquerable jealousy of all mercenary forces: And that those alone whose interest was involved in that of the public, and who possessed a vote in the civil deliberations, would sufficiently respect the authority of parliament, and never could be tempted to turn the sword against those, by whom it was committed to them.

Notwithstanding these reasonings, a committee was chosen to frame what they called the *Self-denying ordinance*;

by which the members of both houses were excluded from all civil and military employments, except a few offices which were specified. This ordinance was the subject of great debate, and, for a long time, rent the whole parliament and city into factions. But, at last, by the prevalence of envy with some; with others, of false modesty; with a great many, of the republican and independent views; it passed the house of commons, and was sent to the upper house. The peers; tho' the scheme was, in part, levelled against their order; tho' all of them were, at bottom, extremely averse to it; possessed so little authority, that they durst not oppose the resolution of the commons; and they esteemed it better policy, by an unlimited compliance, to ward off that ruin, which they saw approaching. The ordinance, therefore, having passed both houses, Essex, Warwic, Manchester, Denbigh, Waller, Brereton, and many others, resigned their commands, and received the thanks of parliament for their good services. A pension of ten thousand pounds a year was settled on Essex.

The army, it was agreed to recruit to 22,000 men; and Sir Thomas Fairfax was appointed general. 'Tis remarkable, that his commission did not run, like that of Essex, in the name of the king and parliament, but in that of the parliament alone: And the article of the safety of the king's person was omitted. So much had the animosities increased betwixt the parties. Cromwel, being a member of the lower house, should have been discarded along with the others; but this impartiality would have disappointed all the views of those, who had introduced the self-denying ordinance. He was saved by a subtily, and by that political craft, in which he was so eminent. At the time, when the other officers resigned their commissions, care was taken, that he should be sent with a body of horse, in order to relieve Taunton, besieged by the royalists. His absence being remarked, orders were dispatched for his present attendance in parliament; and the new general was directed to employ some other officer in that service. A ready compliance was

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feigned; and the very day was named, on which, it was averred, he would take his place in the house. But Fairfax, having appointed a rendezvous of the army, wrote to the parliament, and desired leave to retain, for some days, Lieutenant-general Cromwel, whose advice, he said, would be useful, in supplying the place of those officers, who had resigned. Shortly after, he begged, with much earnestness, that they would allow Cromwel to serve that campaign. And thus the independents, tho' the minority, by art and cunning prevailed over the presbyterians, and bestowed the whole military authority, in appearance, upon Fairfax, in reality, upon Cromwel.

Fairfax was a person equally eminent for courage and for humanity, and not more guided by that *honor*, which regards the opinions of the public, than by that nobler principle of *virtue*, which seeks the inward satisfaction of self-approbation and applause. Sincere in his professions; disinterested in his views; open in his conduct; he had formed one of the most shining characters of that age; had not the extreme narrowness of his genius, in every thing but in war, and his embarrassed and confused elocution, on every occasion but when he gave orders, diminished the lustre of his merit, and rendered the part, which he acted, even when invested with the supreme command, but secondary and subordinate.

Cromwel, by whose sagacity and insinuation Fairfax was intirely governed, is one of the most eminent and most singular personages, which occurs in history: The strokes of his character are as open and strongly marked, as the schemes of his conduct were, during the time, dark and impenetrable. His extensive capacity enabled him to form the most enlarged projects: His enterprizing genius was not dismayed with the boldest and most dangerous. Carried, by his natural temper, to magnanimity, to grandeur, and to an imperious and domineering policy; he knew, when necessary, to employ the most profound dissimulation, the most oblique and refined artifice, the semblance of the greatest moderation and simplicity. A friend to justice, tho' his pub-

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lic conduct was one continued violation of it; devoted to religion, tho' he perpetually employed it as the instrument of his ambition; his crimes were derived from the prospect of sovereign power, a temptation, which is, in general, irresistible to human nature. And while he used well that authority, which he attained by fraud and violence, he has lessened, if not overpowered, our detestation of his enormities, in our admiration of his success and of his genius.

During this important transaction of the self-denying ordinance, the negotiations for peace were likeways carried on, tho' with small hopes of success. The King having sent two messages, one from Evesham,<sup>6</sup> another from Tavistoke,<sup>7</sup> desiring a treaty, the parliament dispatched commissioners to Oxford, with proposals, no less exorbitant than if they had obtained a compleat victory. The advantages gained during the campaign, the great distresses of the royalists, had much elevated their hopes; and they were resolved to repose no trust in men, enflamed with the highest animosity, and who, were they possessed of power, were fully authorized by law to punish all their opponents as rebels and as traitors.

The King, when he considered the proposals and the disposition of the parliament, could not expect any accommodation, and had no prospect but of war or of total submission and subjection: Yet, in order to satisfy his own party, who were extremely impatient for peace, he agreed to send the Duke of Richmond and Earl of Southampton, with an answer to the parliament's proposals, and at the same time to desire a treaty upon their mutual demands and pretensions. It now became necessary for him to retract his former declaration, that the two houses at Westminister were not a free parliament; and accordingly, he was induced, tho' with great reluctance, to give them, in his answer, the appellation of the parliament of England. But it appeared afterwards, by a letter, which he wrote to the Queen, and of which a copy was taken at the battle of Naseby, that he secretly entered a protestation in his council-book; and he

6. 4th of July, 1644. 7. 8th of Sept. 1644.

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pretended, tho' he had *called* them the parliament, that he had not thereby *acknowledged* them for such. This subtlety, which does no honor to Charles, is the most noted of those very few instances, from which the enemies of this Prince have endeavored to load him with the imputation of insincerity; and have inferred that the parliament could repose no confidence in his professions and declarations, not even in his laws and statutes. There is, however, it must be confessed, a difference universally avowed betwixt simply giving to men the appellation, which they assume, and the solemn acknowledgement of their title to it; tho' it had been much better, no doubt, had the King, in such delicate transactions betwixt him and his people, kept at the widest difference from such refinements.

The time and place of treaty were agreed on, and accordingly sixteen commissioners from the King met at Uxbridge with twelve authorized by the parliament, attended with the Scotch commissioners. It was agreed that the Scotch and parliamentary commissioners should give in their demands with regard to three important articles, *Religion*, the *Militia*, and *Ireland*; and that these should be successively examined and discussed in conferences with the King's commissioners. It was soon found totally impracticable to come to any agreement with regard to any of these articles.

In the summer 1643, while the negotiations were carried on with Scotland, the parliament had summoned an assembly at Westminister, composed of 121 divines and 30 laymen, celebrated, in their party, for piety and learning. By their advice, alterations were made in the thirty-nine articles, or in the metaphysical doctrines of the church; and, what was of greater importance, the liturgy was intirely abolished, and, in its place, a new directory for worship was established; where, suitable to the spirit of the puritans, the utmost liberty, both in praying and preaching, was indulged to the public teachers. By the solemn league and covenant, episcopacy was abjured, as destructive of all true piety; and a national engagement, attended with every circumstance, which could render a promise sacred and obligatory, was

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entered into with the Scotch, never to suffer its admission. All these measures showed little spirit of accommodation in the parliament; and the King's commissioners were not surprized to find the establishment of presbytery and the directory positively demanded, along with the subscription of the covenant, both by the King and kingdom.<sup>8</sup>

8. Such love of contradiction prevailed in the parliament, that they had converted Christmas, which, with the churchmen, was a great festival, into a solemn fast and humiliation; 'In order,' as they said, 'that it might call to remembrance our sins and the sins of our fore-fathers, who, pretending to celebrate the memory of Christ, have turned this feast into an extreme forgetfulness of him, by giving liberty to carnal and sensual delights.' 'Tis remarkable, that, as the parliament abolished all holy days, and severely prohibited all amusement on the Sabbath; and even burned, by the hands of the hangman, the king's book of sports: The nation found, that there was no time left for relaxation or diversion. Upon application, therefore, of the servants and apprentices, the parliament appointed the second Tuesday of every month for play and recreation. But these institutions, they found great difficulty to execute; and the people were resolved to be merry when they pleased, not when the parliament should prescribe to them. The keeping of Christmas holy-days was long a great mark of malignancy, and very severely censured by the commons. Even minced pyes, which custom had made a Christmas dish among the churchmen, was regarded, during that season, as a profane and superstitious viand by the sectaries; tho' at other times it agreed very well with their stomachs. In the parliamentary ordinance too, for the observance of the Sabbath, they inserted a clause for the taking down of May-poles, which they called a heathenish vanity. Since we are upon this subject, it may not be amiss to mention, that, beside setting apart Sunday for the ordinances, as they called them, the godly had regular meetings on Thursday for resolving cases of conscience, and conferring about their progress in grace. What they were chiefly anxious about, was the fixing the precise moment of their conversion or new birth; and whoever could not ascertain so difficult a point of calculation, could not pretend any title to saintship. The profane scholars at Oxford, after the parliament became masters of that town, gave to the house, in which the godly assembled, the denomination of *Scruple-Shop*: The godly, in their turn, insulted the scholars and professors; and, intruding into the places of lectures, declaimed against human learning, and challenged the most knowing of them to prove that their calling was from Christ. We are not told what answer the professors of Oxford made to this challenge. See Wood's *Fasti Oxonienses*, p. 740.

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Had Charles been of a disposition to regard all theological controversy, as the mere result of human folly and depravity; he yet had been obliged, in good policy, to adhere to episcopal jurisdiction, not only because it was favorable to monarchy, but because all his adherents were passionately devoted to it; and to abandon them, in what they regarded as so important an article, was for ever to relinquish their friendship and assistance. But Charles had never attained such enlarged principles. Bishops, he esteemed essential to the very being of a christian church; and he thought himself bound, by more sacred ties, than those of policy, or even of honor, to the support of that order. His concessions therefore, on this head, he judged sufficient, when he agreed, That an indulgence should be given to tender consciences with regard to ceremonies; that the bishops should exercise no act of jurisdiction or ordination, without the consent and council of such presbyters as should be chosen by the clergy of each diocese; that they reside constantly in their diocese, and be bound to preach every Sunday; that pluralities be abolished; that abuses in ecclesiastical courts be redressed; and that a hundred thousand pounds be levied from the bishop's estates and the chapter lands, for payment of debts contracted by the parliament. These concessions, tho' considerable, gave no satisfaction to the parliamentary commissioners; and, without abating any thing of their rigor on this head, they proceeded to their demands with regard to the militia.

The King's partizans had all along maintained, that the fears and jealousies of the parliament, after the securities so early and easily given, to public liberty, were either feigned or groundless; and that no human institution, could be better poized and adjusted, than was now the government of England. By the abolition of the star-chamber and court of high commission, the prerogative, they said, has lost all that coercive power, by which it had formerly suppressed or endangered liberty: By the establishment of triennial parliaments, it can have no leisure to acquire new powers, or guard itself, during any time, from the inspection of that

watchful assembly: By the slender revenue of the crown, no king can ever attain such influence as to procure a repeal of these salutary statutes: And while the prince commands no mercenary forces, he will in vain, by violence, attempt an infringement of laws, so clearly defined by means of late disputes, and so passionately cherished by all his subjects. In this situation surely, the nation, governed by so virtuous a monarch, may, for the present, remain in tranquillity, and try, if it be not possible, by peaceful arts, to elude that danger, with which, it is pretended, its liberties are still threatened.

But tho' the royalists insisted on these plausible topics, before the commencement of the war, they were obliged to own, that the progress of civil commotions had somewhat abated the force and evidence of this reasoning. If the power of the militia, said the opposite party, be entrusted to the King, it were not now altogether impossible for him to abuse that authority. But the rage of intestine discord, his partizans are enflamed into an extreme hatred towards their antagonists; and have contracted, no doubt, some prejudices against popular privileges, which, in their apprehension, have been the source of so much mischief. Were the arms of the state, therefore, put entirely into such hands; what public security, it may be demanded, can be given to liberty, or what private security to those, who, in opposition to the letter of the law, have so generously ventured their lives in defence of it? In compliance with this apprehension, Charles offered, that the arms of the state should be entrusted, during three years, to twenty commissioners, who should be named, either by common agreement betwixt him and the parliament, or the one half by him, the other by the parliament. And, after the expiration of that term, he insisted, that his constitutional authority over the militia should again return to him.

The parliamentary commissioners at first demanded, that the power of the sword should for ever be entrusted to such persons, as the parliament alone should appoint: But afterwards, they relaxed so far, as to require that authority only

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for seven years; after which, it was not to return to the king, but to be settled by bill, or by common agreement betwixt him and his parliament. The King's commissioners asked, whether jealousies and fears were all on one side, and whether the prince, from such violent attempts and pretensions as he had experienced, had not, at least, equal reason to apprehend for his authority, as they for their liberty? Whether there was any equity, in securing only one party, and leaving the other, during the course of seven years, entirely at the mercy of their enemies? Whether, if unlimited power was entrusted to the parliament during so long a period, it would not be easy for them to frame the subsequent bill in the manner most agreeable to themselves, and keep for ever, possession of the sword, as well as of every article of civil power and jurisdiction?

With regard to Ireland, there were no greater hopes of accommodation betwixt the parties. The parliament demanded, That the cessation with the rebels should be declared void; that the management of the war should be resigned over entirely to the parliament; and that after the conquest of Ireland, the nomination of the Lord lieutenant and of the judges, or in other words, the sovereignty of that kingdom, should likeways remain in their hands.

What rendered a peaceful accommodation still more desperate: The demands on these three heads, however exorbitant, were acknowledged, by the parliamentary commissioners, to be nothing but preliminaries. Were all these granted, they still reserved the power of reviving those other demands, still more exorbitant, which, a little before, had been transmitted to the King at Oxford. Such ignominious terms were there insisted on, as worse could scarcely be demanded, were Charles totally vanquished, a prisoner, and in chains. The King was required to attaint and exempt from a general pardon, forty of the most considerable of his English subjects, and nineteen of his Scotch, along with all popish recusants in both kingdoms, who had borne arms for him. It was insisted on, that forty-eight more, along with all members who had sate in either house at Oxford, all

lawyers and divines who had embraced the King's party, should be rendered incapable of any office, be forbid the exercise of their profession, be prohibited from coming within the verge of the court, and forfeit the third of their estate to the parliament. It was required, that whoever had borne arms for the King, should forfeit the tenth part of their estate, or if that did not suffice, the sixth, for the payment of public debts. As if the royal authority was not sufficiently annihilated by such terms, it was demanded, that the court of wards should be abolished; that all the considerable officers of the crown, and all the judges, should be appointed by parliament; and that the right of peace and war should not be exercised without the consent of that assembly. The presbyterians, it must be confessed, after insisting on such conditions, differed in little but in words, from the independents, who required the establishment of a pure republic. When the debates had been carried on to no purpose, during twenty days, among the commissioners, they separated, and returned; those of the King, to Oxford, those of the parliament, to London.

A little before the commencement of this fruitless treaty, a deed was executed by the parliament, which proved their determined resolution to yield nothing, but to proceed in the same violent and imperious manner, with which they had, at first, entered on these dangerous enterprizes. Archbishop Laud, the most favored minister of the King, was brought to the scaffold; and in this instance, the public might see, that popular assemblies, as, by their very number, they are, in a great measure, exempt from the restraint of shame, so, when they also overleap the bounds of law, naturally break out into acts of the most atrocious tyranny and injustice.

From the time, that Laud had been committed, the house of commons, engaged in enterprizes of greater moment, had found no leisure to finish his impeachment; and he had patiently endured so long an imprisonment, without being brought to any trial. After the union with Scotland, the bigotted rage of that nation revived the like spirit in Eng-

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land; and the sectaries resolved to gratify their vengeance in the punishment of this prelate, who had so long, by his authority, and by the execution of penal laws, kept their zealous spirit under the most violent confinement. He was accused of high treason, in endeavoring to subvert the fundamental laws, and of other high crimes and misdemeanors. The same illegality of an accumulative crime and a constructive evidence, which appeared in the case of Strafford; the same violence and iniquity in conducting the trial; the same malignity of interpretation; the same cruelty of oppression, exercised against the same innocence, tho' perhaps inferior virtues and abilities; are conspicuous thro' the whole course of this prosecution. The groundless charge of popery, which was belied by his whole life and conduct, was continually urged against the prisoner; and every error rendered unpardonable by this imputation, which was supposed to imply the height of all enormities. 'This man, my lords', said Serjeant Wilde concluding his long speech against him, 'is like Naaman the Syrian; a great man, but a leper'.

We shall not enter into a detail of this matter, which, at present, seems to admit of so little controversy. It suffices to say, that after a long trial, and the examination of above a hundred and fifty witnesses, the commons found so little likelihood of obtaining a judicial sentence against Laud, that they were obliged to have recourse to their legislative authority, and to pass an ordinance for taking away the life of this aged prelate. Notwithstanding the low condition, into which the house of peers were fallen, there appeared some intention of rejecting this ordinance; and the popular leaders were again obliged to apply to the multitude, and to extinguish, by threats of new tumults, the small remains of liberty, possessed by the upper house. Seven peers alone voted in this important question. The rest, either from shame or fear, took care to absent themselves.

Laud, who had behaved during his trial with great spirit and vigor of genius, succumbed not under the horrors of his execution; but tho' he usually professed himself apprehen-

sive of a violent death, he found all his fears to dissipate before that superior courage, by which he was animated. 'No one', said he, 'can be more willing to send me out of life, than I am desirous to go.' Even upon the scaffold, and during the intervals of his prayers, he was harrassed and molested by Sir John Clotworthy, a furious zealot of the reigning sect, and a great leader in the lower house: This was the time he chose to examine the principles of the dying primate, and to trepan him into a confession, that he trusted, for his salvation, to the merits of good works, not to the death of the Redeemer. Having extricated himself from these theological toils, the Archbishop laid his head on the block; and it was severed from the body by one blow.<sup>9</sup> Those religious opinions, for which he suffered, contributed, no doubt, to the courage and constancy of his end. Sincere, he undoubtedly was, and much superior to low interests, in all his pursuits; and 'tis to be regreted, that so generous a spirit, who conducted his enterprizes with such warmth and industry, had not entertained more enlarged views, and adopted principles more favorable to the general happiness of society.

The great and important advantage, which the party obtained by Strafford's death, may, in some degree, palliate the iniquity of the sentence pronounced against him: But the execution of this old infirm prelate, who had so long remained an inoffensive prisoner, can be ascribed to nothing but vengeance and bigotry in those severe religionists, by whom the parliament was intirely governed. That he deserved a better fate was not questioned by any reasonable man: The degree of his merit was, in other respects, much disputed. Some accused him of recommending slavish doctrines, of promoting persecution, and of encouraging superstition; while others thought, that his conduct, in these three particulars, would admit of apology and extenuation.

That the *letter* of the law, as much as the most flaming court-sermon, inculcates passive obedience, is very apparent: And tho' the *spirit* of a limited government

9. 12th of January.

seems to require, in very extraordinary cases, some mitigation of so rigorous a doctrine; it must be confessed, that the preceding genius of the English constitution had rendered a mistake in this particular very natural and excusable. To inflict death at least, on those, who depart from the exact line of truth in these nice questions; so far from being favorable to national liberty, favors strongly of the spirit of tyranny and proscription.

Toleration had hitherto been so little the principle of any christian sect, that even the catholics, the remnant of the religion professed by their ancestors, could not obtain from the English the least indulgence. This very house of commons, in their famous remonstrance, took care to justify themselves, as from the highest imputation, of any intention to relax the golden reins of discipline or grant any toleration: And the enemies of the church were so fair, from the beginning, as not to lay claim to any liberty of conscience, which they called a toleration for soul-murder. They openly challenged the superiority, and even menaced the established church with that persecution, which they afterwards, with such severity, exercised against it. And if the question be considered in the view of policy; tho' a sect, already formed and advanced, may, with some pretext, demand a toleration; what title had the puritans to this indulgence, who were just on the point of separation from the church, and whom, it might be hoped, some wholesome and legal severities would still retain in uniformity to it? <sup>10</sup>

10. That Laud's severity was not extreme, appears from this fact, that he caused the acts or records of the high commission-court to be searched, and found that there had been fewer suspensions, deprivations, and other punishments, by three, during the seven years of his time, than in any seven years of his predecessor Abbot; who was notwithstanding in great esteem with the house of commons. *Troubles and trials of Laud*, p. 164. But Abbot was little attached to the court, and was also a puritan in doctrine, and bore a mortal hatred to the papists. Not to mention, that the mutinous spirit was rising higher in the time of Laud, and would less bear control. The maxims, however, of his administration were the same which had ever prevailed in England, and which had place in every other European nation,

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Whatever ridicule, to a philosophic mind, may be thrown on pious ceremonies, it must be confessed, that, during a very religious age, no institutions can be more advantageous to the rude multitude, and tend more to mollify that fierce and gloomy spirit of devotion, to which they are so subject. Even the English church, tho' it had retained a share of popish superstition, may justly be thought too naked and unadorned, and still to approach too near the abstract and spiritual religion of the puritans. Laud and his associates, by reviving a few primitive institutions of this nature, corrected the error of the first reformers, and presented, to the affrightened and astonished mind, some sensible, exterior observances, which might occupy it during its religious exercises, and abate the violence of its disappointed efforts. The thought, no longer bent on that divine and mysterious Essence, so superior to the narrow capacities of mankind, was able, by means of the new model of devotion, to relax itself in the contemplation of pictures, postures, vestments, buildings; and all the fine arts, which ministered to religion, thereby received additional encouragement. The primate, 'tis true, conducted this scheme, not with the enlarged sentiments and cool disposition of a legislator, but with the intemperate zeal of a sectary; and by overlooking the circumstances of the times, served rather to inflame that religious fury, which he meant to repress. But this blemish is rather to be regarded as a general imputation on the whole age, than any particular failing of Laud; and 'tis sufficient for his vindication to observe, that his errors were the most excusable of all those which prevailed during that zealous period.

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except Holland. To have changed them for the modern maxims of toleration, would have been esteemed a very bold and dangerous enterprize.

## CHAP. IX

*Montrose's victories – The new model of the army – Battle of Naseby – Surrender of Bristol – The west conquered by Fairfax – Defeat of Montrose – Ecclesiastical affairs – King goes to the Scotch at Newark – End of the war – King delivered up by the Scotch*

WHILE the King's affairs declined in England, some events happened in Scotland, which seemed to promise him a more prosperous issue to the quarrel.

Before the commencement of these civil disorders, the Earl of Montrose, a young Nobleman of a distinguished family, returning from his travels, had been introduced to the King, and had made an offer of his services; but by the insinuations of the Marquis, afterwards Duke of Hamilton, who possessed much of Charles's confidence, he had not been received with that distinction, to which he thought himself justly intitled. Disgusted with this treatment, he had forwarded all the violence of the covenanters; and suitable to the natural ardor of his genius, he had applied himself, during the first insurrection, with great zeal as well as success, in levying and conducting their armies. Being commissioned by the *Tables* to wait upon the King, while the royal army lay at Berwick, he was so won upon, by the civilities and caresses of that monarch, that he thenceforth devoted himself intirely, tho' secretly, to his service, and entered into a close correspondence with him. In the second Scotch insurrection, a great military command was, by the covenanters, entrusted to him; and he was the first who passed the Tweed, at the head of their troops, in the invasion of England. He found means, however, soon after to convey a letter to the King: And by the infidelity of some about that Prince; Hamilton, as was by some suspected; a copy of this letter was sent to Leven, the Scotch commander. Being accused of treachery and a correspondence with the

enemy, Montrose openly avowed the letter; and asked the generals, if they dared to call their sovereign an enemy: And by this bold and magnanimous behavior, he escaped the danger of an immediate prosecution. As he was now fully known to be of the royal party, he no longer concealed his intentions; and he endeavored to draw those, who had entertained like sentiments, into a bond of association for his master's service. Tho' thrown into prison for this enterprise,<sup>1</sup> and detained some time, he was not discouraged; but still continued, by his countenance and protection, to infuse spirit into the distressed royalists. Among other persons of distinction, who united themselves to him, was the Lord Napier of Merchiston, son to the famous inventor of the logarithms, the person to whom the title of a **G R E A T M A N** is more justly due, than to any other, whom his country ever produced.

There was in Scotland another party, who professing equal attachment to the King's service, pretended only to differ with Montrose about the means of attaining the same end; and of this party, Hamilton was the leader. That Nobleman had cause to be extremely devoted to the King, not only by reason of the connexion of blood, which united him to the royal family; but on account of the extraordinary confidence and favor, with which he had ever been honored by his master. Being accused by Lord Rae, not without some appearance or probability, of a conspiracy against the King; Charles was so far from harboring suspicion against him, that, the very first time Hamilton came to court, he received him into his bed-chamber, and passed alone the night with him. But such was the Duke's unhappy fate or conduct, that he escaped not the imputation of treachery to his friend and sovereign; and tho' he at last sacrificed his life in the King's service, his integrity and

1. It is not improper here to take notice of a mistake committed by Clarendon, much to the disadvantage of this gallant Nobleman; that he offered the King, when his Majesty was in Scotland, to assassinate Argyle. All the time the King was in Scotland, Montrose was confined to prison.

sincerity have not by historians been thought intirely free from blemish. Perhaps, (and this is the most probable opinion) the subtleties and refinement of his conduct and his temporizing maxims, tho' accompanied with good intentions, have been the chief cause of a suspicion, which has never yet been either fully proved or refuted. As much as the bold and vivid spirit of Montrose prompted him to enterprizing measures, as much was the cautious temper of Hamilton inclined to such as were moderate and dilatory. While the former foretold, that the Scotch covenanters were secretly forming an union with the English parliament, and inculcated the necessity of preventing them by some vigorous undertaking; the latter still insisted, that every such attempt would precipitate them into measures, to which, otherways, they were not, perhaps, inclined. After the Scotch parliament was summoned without the King's authority, the former exclaimed, that their intentions were now visible, and that if some unexpected blow was not struck, to dissipate them, they would arm the whole nation against the King; the latter maintained the possibility of outvoting the disaffected party, and securing, by peaceful means, the allegiance of the Scotch nation. Unhappily for the royal cause, Hamilton's representations met with more credit from the King and Queen, than those of Montrose; and the covenanters were allowed, without interruption, to proceed in all their hostile measures. Montrose hastened to Oxford, where his invectives against Hamilton's treachery, concurring with the general prepossession, and supported by the unfortunate event of his councils, were entertained with universal assent and approbation. Influenced by the clamor of his party, more than his own suspicions, Charles, as soon as Hamilton appeared, sent him prisoner to Pendennis castle in Cornwall. His brother, Laneric, who was also put under confinement, found means to make his escape, and fled into Scotland.

The King's ears were now open to Montrose's councils, who proposed none but the boldest and most daring, suitable to the desperate state of the royal cause in Scotland. Tho' the whole nation was occupied by the covenanters, tho'

great armies were by them kept on foot, and every place guarded by a vigilant administration; he undertook, by his own credit, and that of the few friends, who remained to the King, to raise such commotions, as would soon oblige the male-contents to recal those forces, which had so sensibly thrown the ballance in favor of the parliament. Not discouraged with the defeat at Marston-moor, which rendered it impossible for him to draw any succor from England; he was contented to stipulate with the Earl of Antrim, a Nobleman of Ireland, for some supply of men from that country. And he himself, changing his disguises and passing thro' many dangers, arrived in Scotland; where he lay concealed in the borders of the Highlands, and secretly prepared the minds of his partizans for the attempting some great enterprize.

No sooner were the Irish landed, tho' not exceeding eleven hundred foot, very ill armed, than Montrose declared himself, and entered upon that scene of action, which has rendered his name so celebrated. About eight hundred of the men of Athole flocked to his standard. Five hundred men more, who had been levied by the covenanters, were persuaded to embrace the royal cause: And with this combined force, he hastened to attack Lord Elcho, who lay at Perth with an army of 6,000 men, assembled upon the first news of the Irish invasion. Montrose, inferior in number, totally unprovided of horse, ill supplied with arms or ammunition, had nothing to depend on, but the courage, which he himself, by his own example and the rapidity of his enterprizes, should inspire into his raw soldiers. Having received the fire of the enemy, which was answered chiefly with a volley of stones, at the head of his troops he rushed amidst them with his sword drawn, threw them into confusion, pushed his advantage, and obtained a compleat victory, with the slaughter of two thousand of the covenanters.<sup>2</sup>

This victory, tho' it augmented the renown of Montrose, increased not his power nor numbers. The far greater part of

2. 1st of September 1744.

the kingdom were extremely attached to the covenant; and such as bore an affection to the royal cause, were terrified at the established authority of the opposite party. Dreading the superior power of Argyle, who, having joined his vassals to a force levied by the public, was approaching with a considerable army; Montrose hastened northwards, in order to rouze the Marquis of Huntley and the Gordons, who, having hastily taken arms, had been instantly suppressed by the covenanters. He was joined on his march by the gallant Earl of Airly, with his two younger sons, Sir Thomas and Sir David Ogilvy: The eldest was, at that time, a prisoner with the enemy. At Aberdeen, he attacked the Lord Burley, who commanded a force of 2,500 men. After a sharp combat, by his undaunted courage, which, in his situation, was true policy, and was also not unaccompanied with military skill, he put the enemy to flight, and in the pursuit did great execution upon them.<sup>3</sup>

But by this second advantage, he obtained not the end, which he proposed. The envious nature of Huntley, jealous of Montrose's glory, rendered him averse to join an army, where he himself must be so much eclipsed by the superior merit of the general. Argyle, re-inforced by the Earl of Lothian, was on his back with a great army: The militia of the northern counties, Murray, Ross, Caithness, to the number of 5,000, opposed him in front, and guarded the banks of the Spey, a deep and rapid river. In order to elude these numerous armies, he turned aside into the hills, and saved his weak, but active troops, in Badenoch. After some marches and counter-marches, Argyle came up with him at Faivy-castle. This Nobleman's character, tho' celebrated for political courage and conduct, was very low for military skill and prowess; and he here, after some skirmishes, in which he was worsted, allowed Montrose to escape him. By quick marches, thro' these inaccessible mountains, that general free'd himself from the superior forces of the covenanters.

Such was the situation of Montrose, that very good or

3. 11th of September 1644.

very ill fortune was equally destructive to him, and diminished his army. After every victory, his soldiers, greedy of spoil, but esteeming the smallest acquisition to be inexhausted riches, deserted in great numbers, and went home to secure the treasures, which they had acquired. Tired too, and spent with hasty and long marches, in the depth of winter, thro' snowy mountains, unprovided of every necessary; they fell off, and left their general almost alone with the Irish, who, having no place to which they could retire, still adhered to him in every fortune.

With these, and some reinforcement of the Athole-men, and Macdonalds whom he had recalled, Montrose fell suddenly upon Argyle's country, and let loose upon it the whole rage of war; driving the cattle, burning the houses, and putting the inhabitants to the sword. This severity, by which Montrose sullied his victories, was the result of private animosity against the chieftain, as much as of zeal for the public cause. Argyle, collecting three thousand men, marched in quest of the enemy, who had retired with their plunder; and he lay at Innerlochy, supposing himself still at a considerable distance from them. The Earl of Seaforth, at the head of the garrison of Inverness, who were old soldiers, joined to 5,000 new-levied troops of the northern counties, pressed the royalists on the other side, and threatened them with inevitable destruction. By a quick and unexpected march, Montrose hastened to Innerlochy, and presented himself in order of battle, before the surprised, but not affrighted, covenanters. Argyle alone, seized with a panic, deserted his army, who still maintained their ground, and gave battle to the royalists. After a vigorous resistance, they were defeated, and pursued with great slaughter. And the power of the Campbells (that is Argyle's name) being thus broke; the highlanders, who were in general well-affected to the royal cause, began to join Montrose's camp, in great numbers. Seaforth's army dissipated of itself, at the very terror of his name. And the Lord Gordon, eldest son to Huntley, having escaped from his uncle Argyle, who had hitherto detained him, now joined Montrose, with no contemptible

number of his followers, attended by his brother, the Earl of Aboine.

The council at Edinburgh, alarmed at Montrose's progress, began to think of a more regular plan of defence, against an enemy, whose repeated victories had rendered him extremely formidable. They sent for Baillie, an officer of reputation; and joining him in command with Urrey, who had again enlisted himself among the King's enemies, they sent them to the field, with a considerable army, against the royalists. Montrose, with a detachment of 800 men, had attacked Dundee, a town extremely zealous for the covenant: And having carried it by assault, had delivered it up to be plundered by his soldiers; when Baillie and Urrey, with their whole force, were unexpectedly upon him. His conduct and presence of mind, in this emergence, appeared conspicuous. Instantly he called off his soldiers from plunder, put them in order, secured his retreat by the most skilful measures; and having marched sixty miles in the face of an enemy much superior, without stopping, or allowing his soldiers the least sleep or refreshment, he at last secured himself in the mountains.

Baillie and Urrey now divided their troops, in order the better to conduct the war against an enemy; who surprized them, as much by the rapidity of his marches, as by the boldness of his enterprizes. Urrey, at the head of 4,000 men, met him at Alderne, near Inverness; and, encouraged by the superiority of number (for the covenanters were double the royalists), attacked him in the post which he had chosen. Montrose, having placed his right wing in very strong ground, drew the best of his forces to the other, and left no main body betwixt them; a defect which he artfully concealed, by showing a few men thro' the trees and hedges, with which that ground was covered. That Urrey might have no leisure to perceive the stratagem, he instantly led his left wing to the attack; and making a furious impression upon the covenanters, drove them off the field, and obtained a compleat victory. In this battle, the valor of young Napier, son to the lord of that name, shone out with signal lustre.

Baillie now advanced, in order to revenge Urrey's discomfiture; but, at Alford, he met himself with a like fate.<sup>4</sup> Montrose, weak in cavalry, lined his troops of horse with infantry; and after putting the enemies horse to the rout, fell with united force upon their infantry, which were entirely cut in pieces, tho' with the loss of the gallant Lord Gordon on the part of the royalists. And having thus prevailed in so many battles, which his vigor ever rendered as decisive as they were successful; he summons together all his friends and confederates, and prepares himself for marching into the southern provinces, in order to put a total period to the power of the covenanters, and dissipate the parliament, which, with great pomp and solemnity, they had assembled at St Johnston's.

While the fire was thus kindled in the north of the island, it blazed out, with no less fury in the south; and both armies, as soon as the season would permit, prepared to take the field, in hopes of bringing their important quarrel to a quick decision. The passing the self-denying ordinance had been protracted by so many debates and intrigues, that the spring was far advanced before it received the sanction of both houses; and by many it was esteemed dangerous, so near the time of action, to introduce so great innovations into the army. Had not the punctilious principles of Essex engaged him, amid all the disgusts which he received, to pay implicit obedience to the parliament; this alteration had not been effected without some fatal accident: Since, notwithstanding the prompt resignation of his command, a mutiny was generally apprehended. Fairfax, or, more properly speaking, Cromwel under his name, introduced, at last, the *new model* into the army, and threw the whole troops into a different shape. From the same men, new regiments and new companies were formed, different officers appointed, and the whole military force put into such hands, as the independents could entirely rely on. Beside members of parliament who were excluded, many officers unwilling to serve under the new generals, threw up their commission;

and unwarily facilitated the project of putting the army entirely into the hands of that faction.

Tho' the discipline of the former parliamentary army was not contemptible, a more exact plan was introduced, and rigorously executed, by these new commanders. Valor indeed was very generally diffused over the one party as well as the other, during this period: Discipline too was attained by the forces of the parliament: But the perfection of the military art, in concerting the general plans of action, and the operations of the field, seems still, on both sides, to have been, in a great measure, wanting. Historians at least, perhaps from their own ignorance and inexperience, have not remarked any thing but a headlong impetuous conduct; each party hurrying to a battle, where valor and fortune chiefly determined the success. The great ornament of history, during these reigns, are the civil, not the military transactions.

Never surely was a more singular army assembled, than that which was now set on foot by the parliament. To the greatest number of the regiments, chaplains were not appointed: The officers assumed the spiritual duty, and united it with their military functions. In all the intervals of action, they occupied themselves in sermons, prayers, exhortations; and the same emulation, there, attended them, which, in the field, is so necessary to support the honor of that profession. Rapturous ecstasies supplied the place of study and reflection; and while the zealous devotees poured out their thoughts in unpremeditated harangues, they mistook that eloquence, which, to their own surprize, as well as that of others, flowed in upon them, for divine illuminations, and for illapses of the Holy Spirit. Wherever they lay in quarters, they excluded the minister from his pulpit; and, mounting that dangerous tribunal, conveyed their sentiments to the audience, with all the authority, which followed their power, their valor, their military exploits, united to their apparent zeal and fervor. The private soldiers, seized with the same spirit, employed their vacant hours in prayer, in perusing the Holy Scriptures, in ghostly conferences; where

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they compared the progress of their souls in grace, and mutually stimulated each other to farther advances in the great work of their salvation. When marching to battle, along with the instruments of military music, the whole field resounded with psalms and spiritual songs, adapted to the occasion; and each man endeavored to drown the sense of present danger, in the prospect of that crown of glory which was set before him. In so holy a cause, wounds were esteemed meritorious; death, martyrdom; and the hurry and dangers of action, instead of banishing their pious visions, served rather to impress their mind more strongly with them. During no period, did human nature wear so remarkable a form; nor did men's imagination ever advance, with more vigorous, but still irregular sallies, into those mysterious regions, pointed out by religion.

The royalists endeavored to throw a ridicule on this fanaticism of the parliamentary armies, without being sensible how much reason they had to apprehend it. The forces, assembled by the King at Oxford, in the west, and in other places, were equal, if not superior, in number, to their adversaries; but actuated by a very different spirit. That licence, which had been introduced by the defect of pay, had risen to a prodigious height among them, and rendered them more formidable to their friends than to their enemies. Prince Rupert, negligent of the people, fond of the soldiery, had indulged the troops in very unwarrantable liberties: Wilmot, a man of profligate principles, had promoted the same spirit of disorder: And the licentious Goring, Gerrard, Sir Richard Granville, now carried it to the greatest pitch of enormity. In the west especially, where Goring and Granville commanded, universal spoil and havoc were committed; and the whole country was laid waste by their unbounded rapine. All distinction of parties being in a manner dropped; the most devoted friends of the church and monarchy, wished there for such success to the parliamentary forces, as might put an end to these oppressions. The country people, despoiled of their whole substance, flocked together in several places, armed with clubs

and staves; and tho' they professed an enmity to the soldiers of both parties, their hatred was in most places levelled chiefly against the royalists, from whom they had met with the worst treatment. Many thousands of these tumultuous peasants were assembled in different parts of England; who destroyed all such straggling soldiers as they met with, and much infested the armies.

The disposition of the forces on both sides, was as follows: Part of the Scotch army was employed in taking in Pomfret, and other towns in Yorkshire: Part of it besieged Carlisle, valiantly defended by Sir Thomas Glenham. Chester, where Biron commanded, had long been blockaded by Sir William Brereton; and was reduced to great difficulties. The King, being joined by the Princes, Rupert and Maurice, lay at Oxford, with a considerable army of about 15,000 men. Fairfax and Cromwel were posted at Windsor, with the new modelled army, of about 22,000 men. Taunton, in the county of Somerset, defended by Blake, suffered a long siege from Sir Richard Granville, who commanded an army of about 8,000 men; and, tho' the defence had been very obstinate, the garrison was reduced to the last extremity. Goring commanded, in the west, an army of nearly the same number.

On opening the campaign, the King formed the project of relieving Chester; Fairfax, that of relieving Taunton. The King was first in motion. When he advanced to Draiton in Cheshire, Biron met him, and brought intelligence, that his approach had raised the siege, and that the parliamentary army was drawn off. Fairfax, having reached Salisbury in his road westward, received orders from the committee of both kingdoms, appointed for the management of the war, to return and lay siege to Oxford, now exposed by the King's absence. He obeyed, after sending Collonel Weldon to the west, with a detachment of 4,000 men. On Weldon's approach, Granville, who imagined that Fairfax with his whole army was upon him, raised the siege, and allowed this pertinacious town, now half taken and half burned, to receive relief: But the royalists, being reinforced with 3,000

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horse under Goring, again advanced to Taunton, and shut up Weldon, with his small army, in that ruinous city.

The King, having effected his purpose with regard to Chester, returned southwards; and, in his way, sate down before Leicester, a garrison of the parliament. Having made a breach in the wall, he stormed the town on all sides; and, after a furious assault, the soldiers entered sword in hand, and committed all those disorders, to which their natural brutality, enflamed by resistance, is so much addicted. A great booty was taken and distributed among them: Fifteen hundred prisoners fell into the King's hands. This success, which struck a great terror into the parliamentary party, determined Fairfax to leave Oxford, which he was beginning to approach; and march towards the King, with an intention of offering him battle. The King was advancing towards Oxford, in order to raise the siege, which he apprehended was laid before it; and both armies, 'ere they were aware, had advanced within six miles of each other. A council of war was called by the King, in order to deliberate concerning the measures which he should pursue. On the one hand, it seemed more prudent to delay the combat; because Gerrard, who lay in Wales with 3,000 men, might be enabled, in a little time, to join the army; and Goring, it was hoped, would soon be master of Taunton, and having put the west in full security, would then unite his forces to those of the King, and give him an uncontested superiority over the enemy. On the other hand, Prince Rupert, whose boiling ardor still pushed him on to combat, excited the impatient humor of the nobility and gentry, of which the army was full; and urged the many difficulties under which the royalists labored, and from which nothing but a victory could relieve them. The resolution was formed to give battle to Fairfax; and the royal army immediately advanced upon him.

At Naseby was fought, with forces nearly equal, this decisive and well-disputed field, betwixt the King and parliament. The main body of the royalists was commanded by the King: The right wing, by Prince Rupert: The left, by

Sir Marmaduke Langdale. Fairfax, seconded by Skippon, placed himself in the main body of the opposite army: Cromwel, in the right wing: Ireton, Cromwel's son-in-law, in the left wing. The charge was begun, with his usual celebrity and usual success, by Prince Rupert. Tho' Ireton made stout resistance, and even after he was run thro' the thigh with a pike, still maintained the combat, till he was taken prisoner; yet was that whole wing broke, and pursued with precipitate fury by Rupert: He was even so inconsiderate as to lose time in summoning and attacking the artillery of the parliament, which had been left with a good guard of infantry. The King led on his main body, and displayed, in this action, all the conduct of a prudent general, and all the valor of a stout soldier. Fairfax and Skippon encountered him, and well supported that reputation, which they had acquired. Skippon, being dangerously wounded, was desired by Fairfax to leave the field; but declared that he would remain there as long as one man maintained his ground. The infantry of the parliament was broke, and pressed upon by the King; till Fairfax, with great presence of mind, brought up the reserve and renewed the combat. Mean while, Cromwel, having led on his troops to the attack of Langdale, overbore the force of the royalists, and by his prudence improved that advantage, which he had gained by his valor. Having pursued the enemy about a quarter of a mile, and detached some troops to prevent their rallying; he turned back upon the King's infantry, and threw them into the utmost confusion. One regiment alone preserved its order unbroken, tho' twice desperately assailed by Fairfax: And that general, excited by so stiddy a resistance, ordered Doyley, the captain of his life-guard, to give them a third charge in front, while he himself attacked them in rear. The regiment was broken. Fairfax, with his own hands, killed an ensign, and, having seized the colours, gave them to a soldier to keep for him. The soldier afterwards boasting that he had won this spoil, was reproved by Doyley, who had seen the action: *Let him retain that honor, said Fairfax, I have to day acquired enough beside.*

Prince Rupert, sensible too late of his error, left the fruitless attack on the enemy's artillery, and joined the King, whose infantry was now totally discomfited. Charles exhorted this body of cavalry not to despair, and cried aloud to them, *One charge more and we recover the day.* But the disadvantages, under which they labored, were too evident; and they could by no means be induced to renew the combat. Charles was obliged to quit the field, and leave the victory to the enemy. The slain, on the side of the parliament, exceeded those on the side of the King: They lost a thousand men; he not above eight hundred. But Fairfax made prisoners, 500 officers, 4000 private men: Took all the King's artillery and ammunition, and totally dissipated his infantry: So that scarce any victory could be more compleat, than that which he obtained.

Among the other spoils, was seized the King's cabinet, with the copies of his letters to the Queen, which the parliament afterwards ordered to be published. They chose, no doubt, such of them as they thought would reflect most dishonor upon him: Yet upon the whole, the letters are wrote with great delicacy and tenderness, and give a very advantageous idea both of the King's genius and morals. A mighty fondness, 'tis true, and attachment, he expresses to his consort, and often professes that he never would embrace measures, disagreeable to her: But such declarations of civility and confidence, are not always to be taken in a literal sense. And so legitimate an affection, avowed by the laws of God and man, may, perhaps, be excusable towards a woman of beauty and spirit, even tho' she was a papist.

The Athenians, having intercepted a letter wrote by their enemy, Philip of Macedon, to his wife Olympia; so far from being moved by a curiosity of prying into the secrets of that alliance, immediately sent the letter to the Queen unopened. Philip was not their sovereign; nor were they enflamed with that violent animosity against him, which attends all civil commotions.

After the battle, the King retreated with that body of horse, which remained intire, first to Hereford, then to

Abergavenny; and remained some time in Wales, from the vain hope of raising a body of infantry in those harrassed and exhausted quarters. Fairfax, having first re-taken Leicester, which was surrendered upon articles, began to deliberate concerning his future enterprizes. A letter was brought him, wrote by Goring to the King, and unfortunately entrusted to a spy of Fairfax. Goring informed the King, that, in three weeks time, he hoped to be master of Taunton; after which he would join his Majesty with all the forces of the west; and entreated him, in the mean while, to avoid coming to any action with the enemy. This letter, which, had it been safely delivered, had probably prevented the fatal battle of Naseby, served now to direct the councils of Fairfax. After leaving a body of 3000 men to Pointz and Rosseter, with orders to attend the King's motions, he marched immediately to the west, with a view of saving Taunton and suppressing the only considerable force which now remained to the royalists.

In the beginning of the campaign, Charles, apprehensive of the event, had sent the Prince of Wales, now fifteen years of age, to the west, with the title of general, and had given orders, if he was pressed by the enemy, that he should make his escape into a foreign country, and save one part of the royal family from the violence of the parliament. Prince Rupert had thrown himself into Bristol, with an intention of defending that important city. Goring commanded the army before Taunton.

On Fairfax's approach, the siege of Taunton was raised; and the royalists retired to Lamport, an open town in the county of Somerset. Fairfax attacked them in that post, beat them from it, killed about 300 men, and took 1400 prisoners. After this advantage, he sat down before Bridgewater, a town esteemed strong, and of great consequence in that country. Having entered the outer town by storm, Windham the governor, who had retired into the inner, immediately capitulated, and delivered the place to Fairfax. The garrison, to the number of 2600, were made prisoners of war.

Having taken Bath and Sherborne, Fairfax resolved to sit down before Bristol; and made great preparations for an enterprize, which, from the strength of the garrison, and the reputation of Prince Rupert, the governor, was esteemed of the last importance. But, so precarious in most men is this quality of military courage! a poorer defence was not made by any town, during this whole war: And the general expectation was here extremely disappointed. No sooner had the parliamentary forces entered the lines by storm, than the Prince capitulated, and delivered up the city to Fairfax. A few days before, he had wrote a letter to the King, in which he undertook to defend the city for four months, if no mutiny enforced him to surrender it. Charles, who was forming schemes, and collecting forces, for the relief of Bristol, was astonished at so unexpected an event, which was little less fatal to his party than the defeat at Naseby. Full of indignation, he instantly recalled all Prince Rupert's commissions, and sent him a pass to go beyond seas.

The King's affairs now went fast to ruin in all quarters. Carlisle, after an obstinate siege, being surrendered<sup>5</sup> to the Scotch, they marched southwards, and laid siege to Hereford; but were obliged to raise it on the King's approach: And this was the last glimpse of success, which attended his arms. Having marched to the relief of Chester, which was a-new besieged by the parliamentary forces under Colonel Jones; Pointz attacked his rear, and enforced him to give battle. While the fight was engaged with great obstinacy, and victory seemed to incline to the royalists; Jones fell upon them from the other side, and put them to rout, with the loss of 600 slain and 1,000 prisoners. The King, with the remains of his broken army, fled to Newark, and from thence escaped into Oxford, where he shut up himself during the winter season.

The news, which he received from all sides, were no less fatal than those events, which passed, where he himself was present. Fairfax and Cromwel, after the surrender of Bristol, having divided their forces, the former marched westwards,

in order to compleat the conquest of Devonshire and Cornwall; the latter attacked the King's garrisons which lay to the east of Bristol. The Devizes were surrendered to Cromwell; Berkeley castle was taken by storm; Winchester capitulated; Basing-house was entered sword in hand: And all these middle counties of England were, in a little time, reduced to obedience under the parliament.

The same rapid and uninterrupted success attended Fairfax. The parliamentary forces, elevated by past victories, governed by the most rigid discipline, met with no equal contrast from troops, dismayed by repeated defeats, and corrupted by licentious manners. Having beaten up the quarters of the royalists at Bovey-Tracy, Fairfax sat down before Dartmouth, and in a few days entered it by storm. Poudram castle being taken, and Exeter blockaded on all sides; Hopeton, a man of merit, who now commanded the royalists, having advanced to its relief with an army of 8000 men, met with the parliamentary army at Torrington; where he was defeated, all his foot scattered, and he himself with his horse obliged to retire into Cornwall. Fairfax followed him, and vigorously pursued the victory. Having inclosed the royalists at Truro, he forced the whole army, consisting of 5000 men, chiefly cavalry, to surrender upon terms. The soldiers, delivering up their horses and arms, were allowed to disband, and received twenty shillings a-piece, to carry them to their homes. Such of the officers, as desired it, had passes to retire beyond seas: The others, having promised never more to bear arms, payed compositions to the parliament,<sup>6</sup> and procured their pardon. And thus Fairfax, after taking Exeter, which compleated the conquest of the west, marched, with his victorious army, to the centre of the kingdom, and fixed his camp at Newbury. The Prince of Wales, in pursuance of the King's orders, retired to Scilly, then to Jersey; from whence he went to Paris; where he

6. These compositions were different, according to the demerits of the person: But by a vote of the house they could not be under two years rent, of the delinquent's estate. Journ. 11th of August 1648.

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joined the Queen, who had fled thither from Exeter, at the time the Earl of Essex conducted the parliamentary army to the west.

In other parts of England, Hereford was taken by surprize: Chester surrendered: Lord Digby, who had attempted, with 1,200 horse, to break into Scotland and join Montrose, was defeated at Sherburn, in Yorkeshire, by Colonel Copley; his whole forces scattered, and he himself obliged to fly, first to the isle of Man, and thence into Ireland. News too arrived that Montrose himself, after some more successes, was at last routed; and this only remaining hope of the royal party finally extinguished.

When Montrose descended into the southern counties, the covenanters, assembling their whole forces, met him with a numerous army and gave him battle, but without success, at Kilsyth.<sup>7</sup> This was the most compleat victory which Montrose ever obtained. The royalists put to sword six thousand of their enemies, and left the covenanters no remains of any army in Scotland. The whole kingdom was shook with these repeated successes; and many noblemen, who secretly favored the royal cause, now declared openly for it, when they saw a force able to support them. The Marquis of Douglas, the Earls of Annandale and Hertfield, the Lords, Fleming, Seton, Maderty, Carnegy, with many others, flocked to the royal standard. Edinburgh opened its gates, and gave liberty to all the prisoners, which were there detained by the covenanters. Among the rest, was the Lord Ogilvy, son to Airly, whose family had contributed extremely to the victory, obtained at Kilsyth.

David Lesly was detached from the army in England, and marched to the relief of his distressed party in Scotland. Montrose advanced still farther to the south, allured by vain hopes, both of rouzing to arms the Earls of Hume, Traquaire, and Roxborough, who had promised to join him; and of obtaining from England some supply of cavalry, of which he stood in great need. By the negligence of his scouts, at Philip-Haugh in Tweddale, Lesly surprized his

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army, much diminished in numbers, by the desertion of the Highlanders, who had retired to the hills, according to custom, in order to put their plunder in security. After a sharp fight, where Montrose exerted the most heroic valor, his forces were routed by Lesly's cavalry.<sup>8</sup> And he himself obliged, with his broken forces, to fly into the mountains; where he again prepared himself for new battles and new enterprizes.

The covenanters used the victory with great rigor. Their prisoners, Sir Robert Spottiswood, secretary of state, and son to the late primate, Sir Philip Nisbet, Sir William Rollo, Collonel Nathaniel Gordon, Andrew Guthry, son to the bishop of Murray, William Murray, son to the Earl of Tullibardine, were condemned and executed. The sole crime, imputed to the secretary, was the delivering to Montrose the King's commission to be captain-general of Scotland. Lord Ogilvy, who was again taken prisoner, would have undergone the same fate, had not his sister found means to procure his escape, by changing cloaths with him. For this instance of courage and dexterity, she met with very harsh usage. The clergy solicited the parliament that more royalists might be executed; but could not obtain their request.<sup>9</sup>

After all these repeated disasters, which, every where, befell the royal party, there remained only one body of troops, on which fortune could exercise her rigor. Lord Astley with a small army of 3000 men, chiefly cavalry, marching to Oxford, in order to join the King, was met at Stowe by Collonel Morgan, and utterly defeated; himself being taken prisoner. 'You have done your work', said Astley to the parliamentary officers; 'and may now go to play, unless you choose to fall out among yourselves.'

The condition of the King, during this whole winter, was, to the last degree, disastrous and melancholy. As the dread of ills is commonly more oppressive than their real presence, perhaps in no period of his life was he more justly the object of compassion. His vigor of mind, which, tho' it sometimes failed him in acting, never deserted him in his suffer-

8. 13th of Sept. 1645. 9. Guthry's Memoirs.

ings, was what alone supported him; and he was determined, as he wrote to Lord Digby, if he could not live as a king, to die like a gentleman; nor should any of his friends, he said, ever have reason to blush for the prince, whom they had so unfortunately served.<sup>10</sup> The murmurs of discontented officers, on the one hand, harrassed their unhappy sovereign; while they over-rated those services and sufferings, which, they now saw, must, for ever, be unrewarded: The affectionate duty, on the other hand, of his more generous friends, who respected his misfortunes and his virtues, as much as his dignity, must have wrung his heart with new sorrow; when he reflected, that such disinterested attachment would so soon be exposed to the rigor of his implacable enemies. Repeated attempts, which he made for a peaceful and equitable accomodation with the parliament, served to no purpose, but to convince them that the victory was intirely in their hands. To several of his messages, in which he desired a passport for commissioners, they deigned not to make the least reply. At last, after reproaching him with the blood which was shed during the war, they told him, that they were preparing bills for him, and his passing them would be the best pledge of his inclination towards peace: In other words, he must yield at discretion. He desired a personal treaty, and offered to come to London, upon a safe conduct for himself and his attendants: They absolutely refused him access, and issued orders for the guarding, that is, seizing, his person, in case he should attempt to visit them. A new accident, which happened in Ireland, served to inflame the minds of men, and to increase those calumnies, with which his enemies had so much loaded him, and which he ever regarded as the most grievous part of his misfortunes.

After the cessation with the Irish rebels, the King was desirous of concluding a final peace with them, and obtaining their assistance in England: And he gave authority to Ormond, Lord lieutenant, to promise them an abrogation of all the penal laws, enacted against catholics; along with the

10. *Carte's Ormond*, vol. iii. No 433.

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suspension of Poining's statute, with regard to some particular bills, which should be agreed on. Lord Herbert, created Earl of Glamorgan, (tho' his patent had not yet passed the seals) having occasion for his private affairs to go to Ireland, the King considered that this Nobleman, being a catholic and allied to the best Irish families, might be of service; and he accordingly desired him to promote, by his good offices, the negotiation, which was then on foot with the rebels. Glamorgan, bigotted for his religion, and passionate for the King's service, but guided, in these pursuits, by no manner of judgment or discretion, secretly, of himself, without any communication with Ormond, concluded a peace with the council of Kilkenny, and agreed in the King's name, that the Irish should enjoy all the churches, which they had ever been in possession of, since the commencement of their insurrection; on condition that they should assist the King with a body of ten thousand men. As soon as this transaction was divulged, Ormond, who was well assured, that the King had never consented to a treaty, by which the catholic was, in a manner, made the established religion of Ireland, immediately threw Glamorgan into prison, and charged him with high treason on account of his temerity. The King disowned the giving him any authority for this pacification; and sent to the parliament an account of the whole matter. The prejudices which prevailed against him, made his relation meet with no manner of credit with the parliament or their partizans. And to this day, his veracity in this point is, by some historians, very much called in question.<sup>11</sup>

11. It seems to me, that Glamorgan's commission was either forged or surreptitious, or that it was limited by secret instructions, which he did not regard: But the supposition of its forgery is by far the most probable. To form a perfect judgment of this question requires the perusal of several original papers, beside what are to be found in Rushworth, particularly many letters in the third volume of Carte's life of Ormond. Perhaps, the following hints may be of use to the reader, who would go to the bottom of this affair, which, at first view, seems more intricate than it really is.

1. It was known to the King, that Glamorgan had very little

Having lost all hope of prevailing over the rigor of the parliament, either by arms or by treaty, the only resource, which remained to the King, consisted in the intestine dissensions, which ran very high amongst the parties, Presbyterians and independents, even before their victory was fully

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sense; and he informs Ormond of it, and puts him on his guard in this particular, Carte vol. ii. appendix 13. Is it conceivable, that he entrusted so delicate a transaction to him, intirely independent of Ormond? 2. Glamorgan was zealous for the King, very zealous for his religion: This treaty, to a man of small understanding, might seem to serve both. 3. He was a man of so little probity or so great levity, that his forgeries, in other instances, are palpable and avowed. In order to render himself considerable among the Irish, he showed them a paper, pretended to be signed by the King, where Charles promises his daughter to his eldest son, gives him the right of coinage, endows him with the power in England as well as Ireland, of making nobility and bestowing any title below a duke, of naming one of the secretaries of state, two of the privy council, and the attorney or sollicitor-general. He forged also a letter from the King to the Pope; and the forgery was so palpable, that the Nuncio refused to accept the letter. Is any credit to be paid to such a man's asseverations? Or even any attention given them? 4. The letter, which he produced, had many internal marks of forgery. It bears to be sealed with the privy signet; yet it was not sealed at all: He is called in it Glamorgan, not Herbert; tho' he never bore the former title at Oxford, because his patent had not passed the seals: It is not countersigned by any secretary, nor written in the usual style of such warrants, nor does it refer to any instructions. 5. Ormond was Lord lieutenant, and greatly and deservedly trusted by the King: Would the King have disgraced himself and affronted so great and good a subject, by conducting a negotiation in Ireland by a canal, unknown to him? 6. The King, in 31 of July 1645, after the battle of Naseby, being reduced to great straits, writes earnestly to Ormond to conclude a peace upon certain conditions mentioned, and to come over himself with all the Irish he could procure. See Carte vol. 3. No 400. This were a great absurdity, if he had already fixed a different canal, by which, on very different conditions, he proposed to establish a peace. 7. In October the 22. as his distresses multiply, he somewhat enlarges the conditions. A new absurdity. See Carte vol. iii. No 411. 8. Ormond had told the King, that too large concessions to the catholics would be opposed by the Irish council, who might throw themselves into the hands of the English parliament and oppose the transportation of the Irish auxiliaries. See Carte vol. iii. No 410. What absurdity, then, of granting conditions, which both the council and Ormond must

compleated, fell into high contests about the division of the spoil, and their religious as well as civil disputes, agitated the whole nation.

The parliament, tho' they had very early abolished episcopal authority, had not, for a long time, substituted any

oppose, and must of course be ineffectual to the end proposed. 9. By the King's letter to Ormond, on the 2d of December see No 414, 'tis plain he knew nothing of Glamorgan's peace: Yet that is three months after it was concluded. A plain impossibility! 10. Lord Digby, 'tis evident, knew nothing of Glamorgan's commission, tho' the King's secretary, and at Oxford, when it is pretended to be granted: How durst he otherways have arrested Glamorgan for acting in obedience to it? But is it probable, that it could be a secret to Digby? 11. Ormond and Digby, without staying to inform the King or waiting his orders, immediately arrested Glamorgan, and were perfectly assured that Charles was incapable of giving such scandalous orders. Nothing can do greater honor to the King, nor more fully prove his innocence. 12. The King's positive denial, both in public, and in all his private letters to Ormond and Digby, must be admitted by every one, but the most bigotted enemies to this Prince, to be of great weight. 13. Glamorgan forged plainly these words, of so great consequence (*Or his pleasure known*), which he inferred into the copy of the peace, which he gave into the Irish council. I still repeat the question: Was he not equally capable of another forgery? 14. But what plainly acquits the King, is, that after all the articles of peace were concluded by Glamorgan, that Nobleman privately added a defeazance in these terms. 'The Earl of Glamorgan does no way intend hereby to oblige his Majesty other than he himself shall please, after he has received these 10,000 men, as a pledge and testimony of the said Roman catholics' loyalty and fidelity to his Majesty; yet he promises faithfully, upon his word and honour, not to acquaint his Majesty with this defeazance, till he had endeavored, as far as in him lay, to induce his Majesty to the granting of the particulars in the said articles: But that done, the said commissioners discharge the said Earl of Glamorgan, both in honor and conscience, of any farther engagement to them therein; tho' his Majesty should not be pleased to grant the said particulars in the articles mentioned; the said Earl having given them assurance, upon his word, honor, and voluntary oath, that he would never, to any person whatsoever, discover this defeazance in the interim without their consents.' Here was a treaty and no treaty; and no clearer proof can be produced, that Glamorgan was conscious, that he acted without powers. The question is only, why the Irish accepted of a treaty which bound no body. They probably hoped that the King would be

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other in its place; and their committees of religion had hitherto assumed the whole ecclesiastical jurisdiction: But, by an ordinance, they now established the presbyterian government in all its forms of *congregational, classical, provincial, and national* assemblies. The whole inhabitants of each parish were ordered to meet and choose elders, on whom, along with the minister, was bestowed the intire direction of all spiritual concerns within the congregation. A number of neighboring parishes, commonly betwixt twelve and twenty, formed a classis; and the court, which governed this division, was composed of all the ministers, along with two, three, or four elders chosen from each parish. The provincial assembly retained an inspection over

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more easily induced to ratify a treaty, which was concluded, than to consent to its conclusion. 15. Even after the King was prisoner, Ormond made peace on easier terms. A proof, that the Irish were at last satisfied, that Glamorgan wanted authority. 16. When Lord Digby's papers were taken, after his defeat, the parliament took care to publish every thing, which, by any means, could throw a reflection on the King; but they took care to suppress whatever could redound to his praise. Among the rest was a letter, wrote by Digby to the Irish council of Kilkenny, and which Dr Nalson found afterwards in the paper office. 'I am commanded by his Majesty to declare to you, that, were the condition of his affairs much more desperate than it is, he would never redeem them, by any concession of so much wrong both to his *Honor* and *Conscience*: It is for the defence of his religion principally, that he hath undergone the extremities of war here, and he will never redeem his crown by sacrificing it there. — If nothing will content you but what must wound his honor and conscience, you must expect, that how low soever his condition is, and how detestable soever the rebels of this kingdom are to him; he will in that point join with them, the Scotch, or any of the protestant profession, rather than do the least act, that may hazard that religion, in which and for which he will live and die.' The King's sentiments are sufficiently expressed in this letter. See *Carte* vol. iii. No 402.

It is ridiculous to allege, that Glamorgan was not punished, as a proof that he had had a commission. His father, the Marquis of Worcester, had deserved as well of the King as any subject in his dominions: And was this a time for the King's punishing his friends for imprudent services; when he was oppressed and borne down by the violence of his open, and implacable enemies?

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several neighboring classes, and was composed intirely of clergymen: The national assembly was constituted in the same manner; and its authority extended over the whole kingdom. 'Tis probable, that the tyranny exercised by the Scotch clergy, had given warning not to allow laymen a place in the provincial or national assemblies; lest the nobility and more considerable gentry, solliciting a seat in these great ecclesiastical courts, should bestow a consideration upon them, and render them, in the eyes of the bigotted multitude, a rival to the parliament. In the inferior courts, the intermixture of the laity might serve rather to temper the zeal of the clergy.

But tho' the presbyterians, by the establishment of parity among the ecclesiastics, were so far gratified, they were denied satisfaction in several other points, on which they were extremely intent. The assembly of divines had voted presbytery to be of divine right: The parliament refused their assent to any such decision. Selden, Whitelocke, and other political reasoners, assisted by the independents, had prevailed in this important deliberation. They thought, that had the bigotted religionists been able to get their heavenly charter recognized, the presbyters would soon become more dangerous to the magistrate than had ever been the prelatical clergy. These latter, while they claimed to themselves a divine right, admitted of a like origin to civil authority: The former, attributing to their own order a celestial pedigree, derived the legislative power from no more dignified a source than the voluntary associations of the people.

Under color of keeping the sacraments from profanation, the clergy of all christian sects had assumed, what they call the power of the keys, or the right of fulminating excommunication; and this pretext is so natural, that in most other religions, particularly that of the Druids, a like engine of priestly authority has been employed. The example of Scotland was sufficient warning for the parliament to make provision against so severe a tyranny. By an ordinance, they determined all the cases, in which excommunication could

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be used. They allowed of appeals to the parliament from all ecclesiastical courts. And they appointed commissioners in each province to judge of such cases as fell not within their ordinance. So much civil authority, intermingled with the ecclesiastical, gave disgust to all the zealots.

But nothing was attended with more universal scandal than the propensity of many in the parliament towards a toleration of the protestant sectaries. The presbyterians exclaimed, that this indulgence made the church of Christ resemble Noah's ark, and rendered it a receptacle for all unclean beasts. They insisted, that the least of Christ's truths was superior to all political considerations. They maintained the eternal obligation of their covenant to extirpate heresy and schism. And they menaced all their opponents with the same rigid persecution, of which they had, themselves, so loudly complained, when held in subjection by the hierarchy.

So great prudence and reserve, in such material points, does great honor to the parliament; and proves, that, notwithstanding the prevalence of bigotry and fanaticism, there wanted not members, who had more enlarged views, and payed regard to the civil interests of society. These men, uniting themselves to the enthusiasts, whose genius is naturally averse to clerical usurpations, retained so jealous an authority over the assembly of divines, that they allowed them nothing but the liberty of tendering advice, and would not entrust them even with the power of electing their own chairman or his substitute, or of supplying the vacancies of their own members.

While the disputes were canvassed by theologians, who engaged in their spiritual contests every order of the state; the King, tho he entertained hopes of reaping advantage from these divisions, was much at a loss what side it would be most for his interest to comply with. The presbyterians were, by their principles, the least averse to regal authority; but were rigidly bent on the extirpation of the prelates: The independents were resolute to lay the foundations of a republican government; but as they pretended not to erect

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themselves into a national church, it might be hoped, that, if gratified with a toleration, they would admit the re-establishment of the hierarchy. So great attachment had the King to episcopal jurisdiction, that he was ever inclined to put it in ballance even with his own power and kingly office.

But whatever advantage he might propose to reap from the divisions of the parliamentary party, he was apprehensive, that it would come too late, to save him from that destruction with which he was instantly threatened. Fairfax was approaching with a powerful and victorious army, and was taking all measures for laying siege to Oxford, which must infallibly fall into his hands. To be taken captive and led in triumph by his insolent enemies, was what Charles justly abhorred; and every insult, if not violence, was to be dreaded, from that enthusiastic soldiery, who hated his person, and despised his dignity. In this desperate extremity, he embraced a measure, which, in any other situation, might justly lye under the imputation of imprudence and indiscretion.

Montreville, the French minister, interested for the King more by the natural sentiments of humanity, than any instructions from his court, which seemed rather to favor the parliament, had sollicited the Scotch generals and commissioners, to give protection to their distressed sovereign; and having met with many general professions and promises, he had always transmitted these, perhaps with some exaggeration, to the King. From his suggestions, Charles began to entertain thoughts of leaving Oxford, and flying to the Scotch army, which at that time lay before Newark. He considered that the Scotch nation had been fully gratified in all their demands; and having already, in their own country, annihilated both episcopacy and regal authority, had no farther concessions to exact of him. In all disputes, which had passed about settling the terms of peace, the Scotch, he heard, had still adhered to the milder side, and had endeavored to soften the rigor of the English parliament. Great disgust too, on other accounts, had taken place betwixt the nations; and the Scotch found, that, in proportion

as their assistance became less necessary, less value was put upon them. The progress of the independents gave them great alarm; and they were scandalized to hear their beloved covenant spoken of, every day, with less regard and reverence. The refusal of a divine right to presbytery, and the infringing ecclesiastical discipline from political considerations, were, to them, the subject of much offence; and the King hoped, that, in their present disposition, the sight of their native prince, flying to them in this extremity of distress, would rouze every spark of generosity in their bosom, and procure him their favor and protection.

In order to conceal his intention, orders were given at every gate in Oxford, for allowing three persons to pass; and in the night, the King, accompanied only with Dr Hudson and Mr Ashburnham, went out at that gate, which leads to London. He rode before a portmanteau, and called himself Ashburnham's servant. He passed thro' St Albans, Henley, and came so near London as Harrow on the Hill. He once entertained some thoughts of entering into that city, and of throwing himself on the mercy of the parliament. But at last, after passing thro' many cross roads, he arrived at the Scotch camp before Newark. The parliament, hearing of his escape from Oxford, issued rigorous orders, and threatened with instant death, whoever should harbor or conceal him.

The Scotch generals and commissioners affected great surprize at the appearance of the King: And tho' they payed him all the exterior respect due to his dignity, yet they instantly put a guard upon him, under color of protection; and made him in reality a prisoner. They informed the English parliament of this unexpected accident, and assured them, that they had entered into no private treaty with the King. They applied to him for orders to Bellasis, governor of Newark, to surrender his town, now reduced to extremity; and the orders were instantly obeyed. And hearing that the parliament laid claim to the entire disposal of the King's person, and that the English army were making some motions towards them; they thought proper

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to retire northwards, and fixed their camp at Newcastle.

This measure was very agreeable to the King; and he began to entertain hopes of protection from the Scotch. He was particularly attentive to the behavior of their preachers, on whom all depended. It was the mode of that age to make the pulpit the scene of news; and on every great event, the whole Scripture was ransacked by the clergy, for passages applicable to the present occasion. The first minister who preached before the King, chose these words for his text. ‘And behold all the men of Israel came to the king, and said unto him, Why have our brethren, the men of Judah, stolen thee away, and have brought the king and his household, and all David’s men with him, over Jordan. And all the men of Judah answered the men of Israel, Because the king is near of kin to us; wherefore then be ye angry for this matter? Have we eaten at all of the king’s cost? or hath he given us any gift? And the men of Israel answered the men of Judah, and said, we have ten parts in the king, and we have also more right in David than ye: Why then did ye despise us, that our advice should not be first had in bringing back our king? And the words of the men of Judah were fiercer than the words of the men of Israel’.<sup>12</sup> But the King soon found, that the happiness of the allusion chiefly had tempted the preacher to employ this text, and that the covenanting zealots were no way pacified towards him. Another preacher, after insolently reproaching him to his face, with his misgovernment, ordered this psalm to be sung;

*Why dost thou, tyrant, boast thyself ...  
Thy wicked deeds to praise:*

The King stood up, and called for that psalm which begins with these words,

*Have mercy, Lord, on me, I pray;  
For men would me devour:*

The good-natured audience, in pity to fallen majesty,

<sup>12.</sup> II, Sam. chap. xix. 41, 42, and 43 verses. See Clar. vol. iii, p. 18.

showed, for once, greater deference to the King than to the minister, and sung the psalm which the former had called for.<sup>13</sup>

Charles had very little reason to be pleased with his situation. Not only he found himself a prisoner, very narrowly guarded: All his friends were kept at a distance; and no intercourse, either by letters or conversation, was allowed him with any one, on whom he could depend, or who was suspected of any attachment to him. The Scotch generals would enter into no confidence with him; and still treated him with distant ceremony and feigned respect. And every proposal, which they made him, tended farther to his abasement and his ruin.

They required him to issue orders to Oxford, and all his other garrisons, commanding their surrender to the parliament: And the King, sensible that their resistance was to very little purpose, willingly complied. The terms which were given to most of them, were honorable; and Fairfax, as far as lay in his power, was very exact in observing them. Far from allowing violence; he would not even permit insults or triumph over the unfortunate royalists; and by his generous humanity, so cruel a civil war ended, in appearance, very calmly, betwixt the parties.

Ormond having received like orders, delivered Dublin, and other forts, into the hands of the parliamentary officers. Montrose too, after having experienced still more variety of good and bad fortune, threw down his arms, and retired into foreign countries.

The Marquis of Worcester, a man past eighty four, was the last in the kingdom, who submitted to the authority of the parliament. He defended Raglan castle to extremity; and opened not its gates till the middle of August. Four years, a few days excepted, were now elapsed, since the King first erected his standard at Nottingham. So long had the British nations been occupied in shedding the blood of their fellow citizens, and laying waste their mother-country, by their civil and religious quarrels!

13. Whitelock, page 235.

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The parliament and the Scotch laid their proposals before the King. They were such as a captive, entirely at mercy, could expect from the most inexorable victor: Yet were they little worse than what were insisted on before the fatal campaign of Naseby. The power of the sword, instead of ten, which the King now offered, was demanded for twenty years, along with a right to levy whatever money the parliament should think proper for the support of their armies. The other conditions were, in the main, the same with those which were formerly offered to the King.

Charles said, that proposals, which introduced such important innovations in the constitution, demanded time for deliberation: The commissioners replied, that he must give his answer in ten days. He desired to reason about the meaning and import of the terms: They informed him, that they had no power of debate; and required peremptorily his consent or refusal. He requested a personal treaty with the parliament: They threatened, that, if he delayed compliance, the parliament, without him, by their own authority, would settle the nation.

What the parliament was most intent upon, was not the treaty with the King, to whom they payed little regard; but that with the Scotch nation. Two important points remained to be settled with them; their delivery of the King, and the estimation of their arrears.

The Scotch pretended, that, as Charles was King of Scotland as well as of England, they were intitled to an equal vote in the disposal of his person: And that, in such a case, where the titles are equal, and the subject indivisible, the preference was due to the present possessor. The English maintained, that, he, being in England, was comprehended within the jurisdiction of that kingdom, and could not be disposed of by any foreign nation. A delicate question this, and what surely could not be decided by precedent; since such a situation is not, anywhere, to be found in history.

As the Scotch concurred with the English, in imposing such rigorous conditions on the King, that, notwithstanding

his unfortunate situation, he still refused to accept of them; it is certain, that they did not desire his freedom; nor could they ever intend to join lenity and tyranny together, in so inconsistent a manner. Before the settlement of terms, the administration must be possessed intirely by the parliaments of both kingdoms; and how incompatible that scheme with the liberty of the King, is easily imagined. To carry him a prisoner into Scotland, where few forces could be supported in order to guard him, was a measure so full of inconvenience and danger, that, even if the English had consented to it, it must have appeared to the Scotch nation altogether ineligible: And how could such a plan be supported in opposition to England, possessed of such numerous, and victorious armies, which were, at that time, or at least, seemed to be, in intire union with the parliament? The only expedient, it is obvious, which the Scotch could embrace, if they would not intirely abandon the King, was immediately to return, fully and cordially, to their allegiance; and, uniting themselves with the royalists of both kingdoms, endeavor, by force of arms, to reduce the English parliament to more moderate conditions: But beside that this measure was full of extreme hazard; what was it but instantly to combine with their old enemies against their old friends, and, in a fit of romantic generosity, overturn what, with so much expence of blood and treasure, they had, during the course of so many years, been so carefully erecting?

But, tho' all these reflections occurred to the Scotch commissioners, they resolved to prolong the dispute, and to keep the King as a pledge for those arrears, which they claimed from England, and which they were not likely, in the present disposition of that nation, to obtain by any other expedient. The sum, by their account, amounted to two millions: For they had received very little regular pay, since their entrance into England. And tho' the contributions, which they had levied, and the free quarter, which they had taken, must be deducted; yet still the sum, which they insisted on, was very considerable. After many discussions,

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it was, at last, agreed, that, in lieu of all demands, they should accept 400,000 pounds, half to be paid instantly, half within a twelve-month.

Great pains were taken by the Scotch, (and the English complied with their pretended delicacy) to make this estimation and payment of arrears appear a quite different transaction from that for the delivery of the King's person: But common sense requires, that they should be regarded as one and the same. The English, it is evident, had they not been previously assured of receiving the King, would never have parted with so considerable a sum, and, while they weakened themselves, by the same expedient have strengthened a people, with whom they should afterwards have so material an interest to discuss.

Thus the Scotch nation underwent, and still undergo: For such grievous stains are not easily wiped off: The reproach of selling their King, and bargaining their prince for money. In vain, did they maintain, That this money was, on account of former services, intirely their due; that, in their present situation, no other measure, without the utmost indiscretion, or even apparent ruin, could be embraced; that tho' they delivered their King into the hands of his open enemies, they were themselves as much his open enemies as those to whom they surrendered him, and their common hatred against him had long united the two parties in strict alliance with each other. They were still answered, that they made use of this scandalous expedient to obtain their wages; and that, after taking arms, without any provocation, against their sovereign, who had ever loved and cherished them, they had deservedly fallen into a situation, from which they could not extricate themselves, without either infamy or imprudence.

The infamy of this bargain had such influence on the Scotch parliament, that they once voted, that the King should be protected and his liberty insisted on. But the general assembly interposed, and pronounced, that, as he had refused the covenant, which was pressed on him, it became not the godly to concern themselves about his for-

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tune. After this declaration, it behoved the parliament to retract their vote.

Intelligence of the final resolution of the Scotch nation to deliver him up, was brought to the King; and he happened, at that very time, to be playing at chess.<sup>14</sup> Such command of temper did he enjoy, that he continued his game without interruption; and none of the bye-standers could perceive, that the letter, which he perused, had brought him news of any consequence. The English commissioners, who, some days after, came to receive him, he admitted to kiss his hands with the same grace and cheerfulness, as if they had travelled on no other errand, but to pay court to him. The old Earl of Pembroke, who was one of them, he congratulated on his strength and vigor, that he was still able, during such a season, to perform so long a journey, in company with so many young people. This self-command of Charles was united to perfect candor and sincerity: Otherways, it had merited but small praise.

At Newcastle, the English commissioners, receiving the King from the Scotch army, conducted him, under a guard, to Holmby, in the county of Northampton. On his journey, the whole country flocked to behold him, moved partly by curiosity, partly by compassion and affection. If any still retained rancor against him, in this forlorn condition, they passed in silence; while his well-wishers, more generous than prudent, accompanied his march with tears, with acclamations, and with prayers for his safety.<sup>15</sup> That antient superstition too, of desiring the king's touch in scrophulous distempers, seemed to acquire fresh credit among the people, from the general tenderness, which began to prevail for this virtuous and unhappy monarch.

The commissioners rendered his confinement at Holmby very rigorous; dismissing all his antient servants, debarring him of all visits, and cutting him off from all communication with his friends or family. The parliament, tho' earnestly applied to by the King, refused to allow his chap-

14. Burnet's history of the Hamiltons. 15. Ludlow, Herbert.

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lains to attend him; because they had not taken the covenant. The King refused to assist at the service, exercised according to the Directory; because he had not, as yet, given his consent to that mode of worship. Such religious zeal prevailed on both sides! And such was the divided and distracted condition, to which it had reduced the King and people!

During the time, that the King remained in the Scotch army at Newcastle, died the Earl of Essex, the discarded, but still powerful and popular general of the parliament. His death, in this conjuncture, was a public misfortune. Fully sensible of the mischievous extremities, to which affairs had been carried, and of the worse consequences, which were still to be apprehended; he had resolved to conciliate a peace, and to correct, as far as possible, all those ills, to which, from mistake, rather than any bad intentions, he had himself so much contributed. The presbyterian or the moderate party among the commons, found themselves considerably weakened by his death: And the small remains of authority, which still adhered to the house of peers, were, in a manner, wholly extinguished.

## CHAP. X

*Mutiny of the army – The King seized by Joyce – The army march against the parliament – The army subdue the parliament – The King flies to the isle of Wight – Second civil war – Invasion from Scotland – The treaty of Newport – The civil war and invasion repressed – The King seized again by the army – The house purged – The King's trial – And execution – And character*

THE dominion of the parliament was of very short duration. No sooner had they subdued their sovereign, than their own servants rose up against them, and tumbled them from their slippery throne. The sacred boundaries of the laws being once violated, nothing remained to confine the wild projects of zeal and ambition. And every successive revolution became a precedent for that which followed it.

In proportion as the terror of the King's power decayed, the divisions betwixt independent and presbyterian became every day more apparent; and the neuters found it, at last, requisite to seek shelter in one or the other faction. Many new writs were issued for elections, in room of members, who had died, or were disqualified for adhering to the King; yet still the presbyterians retained the superiority among the commons: And all the peers, except Lord Say, were esteemed of that party. The independents, to whom all inferior sectaries adhered, predominated in the army: And the troops of the new model were universally affected with that enthusiastic spirit. To their assistance did the independent party, among the commons, chiefly trust, in their projects for acquiring the ascendant over their antagonists.

No sooner were the Scotch retired, than the presbyterians, seeing every thing reduced to obedience, began to talk of dismissing a considerable part of the army: And, under pretext of easing the public burthens, levelled a deadly blow at the opposite faction. A strong detachment they

proposed to embark, under Skippon and Massey for the service of Ireland: A great reduction of the remainder was openly professed.<sup>1</sup> It was even imagined, that another new model of the army was projected, in order to regain to the presbyterians, that superiority, which they had so imprudently lost by the former.

The army had small inclination to the service of Ireland; a country barbarous, uncultivated, and laid waste by massacres, and civil commotions: They had less inclination to disband, and to renounce that pay, which, having earned it thro' fatigues and dangers, they now proposed to enjoy in ease and tranquillity. And most of the officers, being raised from the lowest dregs of the people, had no other prospect, if deprived of their commission, than that of returning to languish in their native poverty and obscurity.

These motives of interest acquired additional influence, and became more dangerous to the parliament, from the religious spirit, by which the army was universally animated. Among the generality of men, educated in regular, civilized societies, the sentiments of shame, duty, honor, have considerable authority, and serve to counterbalance and direct the motives, derived from private advantage: But, where fanaticism predominated to such a degree as among the parliamentary forces, all these salutary principles lost their credit, and were regarded as mere human inventions, yea moral institutions, fitter for heathens than for christians. The saint, resigned over to a superior guidance of pious zeal and fervor. And, beside the strange corruptions engendered by this spirit, it eluded and loosened all the ties of morality, and gave intire scope, and even sanction to the selfishness and ambition, which so commonly adhere to the human mind.

The military confessors were farther encouraged in disobedience to superiors, by that spiritual pride, so essential to the faintly character. They were not, they said, mere

1. Fourteen thousand men were only proposed to be kept up; 6,000 horse, 6,000 foot, and 2,000 dragoons. Bates.

janizaries; mercenary troops inlisted for hire, and to be disposed of at the will of their paymasters. Religion and liberty were the motives, which had excited them to arms; and they had a superior right to see those blessings, which they had purchased with their blood, ensured to future generations. By the same title, that the presbyterians, in contradistinction to the royalists, had appropriated to themselves the epithet of the *godly*, or the *well-affected*: The independents did now, in contradistinction to the presbyterians, assume the same magnificent appellation, and arrogate all the ascendant, which naturally belongs to it.

Hearing of parties in the house of commons, and being informed, that the minority were friends to the army, the majority enemies; the troops naturally interested themselves in that dangerous distinction, and were eager to give the superiority to their partizans. Whatever hardships they underwent, tho' perhaps derived from inevitable necessity, they ascribed to a settled design of oppressing them, and resented as an effect of the animosity and malice of their antagonists.

Notwithstanding the immense revenue, which accrued from taxes, assessments, sequestrations, and compositions, great arrears were due to the army; and many of the private men, as well as officers, had near a twelvemonth's pay still owing them. The army suspected, that this deficiency was purposely contrived, in order to oblige them to live on free quarter; and, by rendering them odious to the country, serve as a pretext for disbanding them. When they saw such members, as were employed in committees and civil offices, accumulate great fortunes, they accused them of rapine and public plunder. And, as no plan was pointed out by the commons for the payment of arrears, the soldiers suspected, that, after they were disbanded or embarked for Ireland, their enemies, who predominated in the houses, would intirely defraud them of their right, and oppress them with impunity.

On this ground or pretext did the first commotions begin in the army. A petition, addressed to Fairfax the general,

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was handed about; desiring an indemnity, and that ratified by the King, for any illegal actions, of which, during the course of the war, the soldiers might have been guilty; along with satisfaction in arrears, freedom from pressing, relief of widows, and maimed soldiers, and pay till disbanded. The commons, aware of what combustible materials the army was composed, were alarmed at this intelligence. Such a combination, they knew, if not checked in its first appearance, must be attended with the most dangerous consequences, and must soon exalt the military above the civil authority. Beside summoning some officers to answer for this attempt, they immediately voted, that the petition tended to introduce mutiny, to put conditions upon the parliament, and to obstruct the relief of Ireland; and they threatened to proceed against the promoters of it, as enemies to the state, and disturbers of public peace. This declaration, which may be esteemed violent, especially as the army had some ground for complaint, produced very fatal effects. The soldiers lamented, That they were deprived of the privileges of Englishmen; that they were not allowed so much as to represent their grievances; that, while petitions from Essex and other places were openly encouraged against the army, their mouths were stopped; and that they, who were the authors of liberty to the nation, were, by a faction in parliament, reduced to the most grievous servitude.

In this disposition was the army found by Warwic, Dacres, Massey and other commissioners; appointed to make them proposals for entering into the service of Ireland. Instead of inlisting, the generality objected to the terms; demanded an indemnity; were clamorous for their arrears: And, tho' they expressed no dissatisfaction against Skippon, who was appointed commander, they discovered much stronger inclination to serve under Fairfax and Cromwel. Some officers, who were of the presbyterian party, having entered into engagements for this service, could prevail on very few of the soldiers to enlist under them. And, as they all lay under the grievous reproach of deserting

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the army, and betraying the interest of their companions; the rest were farther confirmed in that confederacy, which they had formed.

To petition and remonstrate being the most cautious way of conducting a confederacy, an application to parliament was drawn by near 200 officers; where, with a very imperious air, they made their apology, asserted their right of petitioning, and complained of that imputation thrown upon them by the former declaration of the lower house. The private men too of some regiments sent a letter to Skippon; in which, along with the same topics, they lament, that designs were formed against them and many of the godly party in the kingdom; and declare, that they could not engage for Ireland, till they were satisfied in their expectations, and had their just desires granted. The army, in a word, felt their power, and were resolved to be masters.

The parliament too resolved, if possible, to preserve their dominion; but, being destitute of power, and not retaining much authority, it was not easy for them to employ any expedient, which could contribute to their purpose. The expedient, which they now made use of, was the worst imaginable. They sent Skippon, Cromwel, Ireton, and Fleetwood, to the head-quarters at Saffron-Weldon in Essex; and empowered them to make offers to the army, and inquire into the cause of its *distempers*. These very generals, at least the three last, were secretly the authors of all the discontents; and were sure to foment those disorders, which they pretended to appease. By their suggestion, a measure was embraced, which, at once, reduced matters to extremity, and rendered the mutiny incurable.

In opposition to the parliament at Westminster, a military parliament was formed. Along with a council of the principal officers, which was appointed after the model of the house of peers; a more free representative of the army was composed, by the election of two private men or inferior officers, under the title of agitators, from each troop or company. By this means, both the general humor of that time was gratified, intent on plans of imaginary republics,

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and an easy method contrived for conducting, underhand, and propagating the sedition of the army.

This terrible court, when assembled; having first declared, that they found no *distempers* in the army, but many *grievances*, under which it labored; immediately voted the offers of the parliament unsatisfactory. Eight weeks pay alone, they said, was promised; a small portion of fifty six weeks, which they pretended to be their due: No visible security was given for the remainder: And having been declared enemies by the commons, they might hereafter be prosecuted as such, unless the declaration was recalled. Before matters came to this height, Cromwel had posted up to London, under pretext of laying before the parliament the rising discontents of the army.

The parliament made one vigorous effort more, to try the force of their authority: They voted, that all the troops, which did not engage for Ireland, should instantly be disbanded in their quarters. At the same time, the council of the army ordered a general rendezvous of all the regiments, in order to provide for their common interests. And while they thus prepared themselves for opposition to the parliament, they struck a blow, which at once decided the victory in their favor.

A party of five hundred horse appeared at Holmby, conducted by one Joyce, who had once been a taylor by profession; but was now advanced to the rank of cornet, and was an active agitator in the army. Without being opposed by the guard, whose affections were all on the same side; Joyce came into the King's presence, armed with pistols, and told him, that he must immediately go along. *Whither?* said the King. *To the army;* replied Joyce. *By what warrant?* asked the King. Joyce pointed to the soldiers, whom he brought along; tall, handsome, and well accoutered. *Your warrant,* said Charles smiling, *is wrote in fair characters, legible without spelling!* The parliamentary commissioners came into the room: They asked Joyce, whether he had any orders from the parliament? He said, *No:* From the general? *No:* By what authority he came?

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He made the same return as to the King: *They would write*, they said, *to the parliament to know their pleasure.* *You may do so*, replied Joyce; *but in the mean time the King must immediately go with me.* Resistance was vain. The King, after protracting the time as long as he could, went into his coach; and was safely conducted to the army, who were hastening to their rendezvous at Triplo-Heath near Cambridge. The parliament, informed of this event by their commissioners, were thrown into the utmost consternation.

Fairfax himself was no less surprized at the King's arrival. That bold measure, executed by Joyce, had never been communicated to the general. The orders were intirely verbal; and no body avowed them. And, while every one affected astonishment at the enterprize, Cromwel, by whose council it had been directed, arrived from London, and put an end to their deliberations.

This artful and audacious conspirator had conducted himself in the parliament with such profound dissimulation, with such refined hypocrisy, that he had long deceived those, who, being themselves practitioners in the same arts, naturally entertained the more suspicion against others. At every intelligence of disorders in the army, he was moved to the highest pitch of grief and of anger. He wept bitterly: He lamented the misfortunes of his country: He advised every violent measure for suppressing the mutiny; and by these precipitant councils, at once gave testimony of his own sincerity, and inflamed those discontents, of which he intended to make advantage. He attested heaven and earth, that his devoted attachment to the parliament had rendered him so odious in the army, that his life, while among them, was in the utmost danger; and he had very narrowly escaped a conspiracy, formed to assassinate him. But information being brought, that the most active officers and agitators were intirely his creatures, the parliamentary leaders secretly resolved, that, next day, when he should come to the house, an accusation should be entered against him, and he should be sent to the tower. Cromwel, who, in

the conduct of his desperate enterprizes, frequently approached to the very brink of destruction, knew how to make the requisite turn with proper dexterity and boldness. Being informed of this design, he hastened to the camp; where he was received with acclamations of joy, and was instantly invested with the supreme command both of general and army.

Fairfax, having neither talents himself for cabals, nor penetration to discover the cabals of others, had given his confidence intirely to Cromwel; who, by the best colored pretences, and by the appearance of an open sincerity and a scrupulous conscience, imposed on the easy nature of this brave and virtuous man. The council of officers and the agitators were moved altogether by Cromwel's direction, and conveyed his will to the whole army. By his profound and artful conduct, he had now reached a situation, where he could cover his enterprizes from public view; and seeming either to obey the commands of his superior officer, or yield to the movements of the soldiers, could secretly pave the way for his future greatness. While the disorders of the army were yet in their infancy, he kept at a distance; lest his counterfeit aversion might throw a damp upon them, or his secret encouragement beget suspicion in the parliament. As soon as they came to maturity, he openly joined the army; and in the critical moment, struck that important blow of seizing the King's person, and depriving the parliament of any resource by an accommodation with him. Tho' one vizor fell off, another still remained, to cover his natural countenance. Where delay was requisite, he could employ the most indefatigable patience: Where celerity was necessary, he flew to a decision. And by thus uniting in his person the most opposite talents, he was enabled to combine the most contrary interests in a subserviency to his secret purposes.

The parliament, tho' at present defenceless, were possessed of many resources; and time might easily enable them to resist that violence, with which they were threatened. Without farther deliberation, therefore, Cromwel

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advanced the army upon them, and arrived in a few days at St Albans.

Nothing could be more popular, than this hostility, which the army commenced upon the parliament. As much as that assembly was once the idol of the nation, as much was it become the object of general hatred and aversion.

The self-denying ordinance had no longer been put in execution, than till Essex, Manchester, Waller, and the other officers of that party, had resigned their commission: Immediately after, it was laid aside by tacit consent; and the members, sharing all offices of power and profit among them, proceeded with impunity in plundering and tyrannizing over the helpless nation. Tho' the necessity of their situation might serve as an apology for many of their measures, the people, not accustomed to such a species of government, were not disposed to make the requisite allowances.

A small supply of 100,000 pounds a-year could scarce be obtained by the former kings from the jealous humor of the parliaments; and the English, of all nations in Europe, were the least accustomed to taxes: But this parliament, from the commencement of the war, according to some computations, had levied, in five years, above forty millions;<sup>2</sup> and yet were loaded with debts and incumbrances, which, during that age, were regarded as prodigious. If these computations should be esteemed much exaggerated, as they probably are, the taxes and impositions were certainly far higher than in any former state of the English government; and such popular exaggerations are, at least, a proof of popular discontents.

But the disposal of this money was no less the object of

2. Clement Walker's history of the two Juntas, prefixed to his history of independency. This is an author of great spirit and ingenuity; and being a zealous parliamentarian, his authority is very considerable, notwithstanding the air of satyre, which prevails in his writings. This computation, however, seems much too large: especially as the sequestrations, during the time of war, could not be so considerable as afterwards.

general complaint against the parliament than the levying it. The sum of 300,000 pounds they openly took, 'tis affirmed,<sup>3</sup> and divided among their own members. The committees, to whom the management of the different branches of revenue was entrusted, never brought in their accounts, and had unlimited power of secreting whatever sums they pleased from the public treasure.<sup>4</sup> These branches were needlessly multiplied, in order to render the revenue more perplexed, to share the plunder among greater numbers, and to conceal the robberies, of which they were universally suspected.<sup>5</sup>

The method of keeping accounts, practised in the exchequer, was confessedly the exactest, the most antient, the best known, and the least liable to fraud. The exchequer was, for that reason, abolished, and the revenue put under the management of a committee, who were subject to no control.<sup>6</sup>

The excise was an odious tax, formerly unknown to the nation; and was now extended over meat, and the common necessaries of life. Near one half of the goods and chattels, and at least one half of the lands, rents, and revenues of the kingdom, had been sequestred. To great numbers of royalists, all redress for these sequestrations was refused: To the rest, the remedy could be obtained only by paying large compositions and subscribing the covenant; which they abhorred. Beside the ruin and desolation of so many antient and honorable families; indifferent spectators could not but detest the injustice of punishing, with such severity, actions, which the law, in its usual and most undisputed interpretation, strictly required of every subject.

The severities too, exercised against the episcopal clergy, could not but affect the royalists, and even all men of candor, in a very sensible manner. By the most moderate computation,<sup>7</sup> it appears, that above one half of the established

3. Clement Walker's history of independency.

4. Id. ibid.

5. Id. ibid.

6. Id. ibid.

7. See John Walker's attempt towards recovering an account of the numbers and sufferings of the clergy. The parliament pretended to

church had been turned out to beggary and want, for no other crime than their adherence to the civil and religious principles, in which they were educated; and for their attachment to those laws, under whose countenance they had at first embraced that profession. To renounce episcopacy and the liturgy, and to subscribe the covenant, were the only terms, which could save them from so rigorous a fate; and if the least mark of malignancy, as it was called, or affection to the King, who so intirely loved them, had ever escaped their lips, even this hard choice was not permitted. The sacred character, which gives the priesthood such authority over mankind, becoming more venerable from the sufferings, endured for the sake of principle, by these distressed royalists, aggravated the general indignation against their persecutors, who had robbed them of possessions, secured to them by every law, human and divine, with which the nation had hitherto been acquainted.

But what excited the most universal complaint was, the unlimited tyranny and despotic rule of the country-committees. During the war, the discretionary power of these courts was excused, from the plea of necessity: But the nation was reduced to despair, when it saw neither end put to their duration, nor bounds to their authority. These could sequester, fine, imprison, and corporally punish, without law or remedy. They interposed in questions of private property. Under color of malignancy, they excercised vengeance against their private enemies. To the obnoxious, and sometimes to the innocent, they sold their protection. And instead of one star-chamber, which had been abolished, a hundred were anew erected, fortified with better pretexts, and armed with more unlimited authority.<sup>8</sup>

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leave the sequestered clergy a fifth of their revenue; but this author makes it sufficiently appear, that this provision, small as it is, was little better than a mockery.

8. Clement Walker's history of independency. Hollis gives the same representation, as Walker, of the plundering, oppressions, and tyranny of the parliament: Only, instead of laying the fault on both parties, as Walker does, he ascribes it solely to the independent fac-

Could any thing have increased the indignation against that slavery, into which the nation, from the too fond pursuit of liberty, had fallen; it must have been the reflection on the pretensions, by which the people had so long been deluded. The sanctified hypocrites, who called their public plunder the spoiling the Egyptians, and their unbounded severity the dominion of the Elect, interlarded all their iniquities with long and fervent prayers, saved themselves from blushing by their pious grimaces, and exercised, in the name of the Lord, all their cruelty on men. An undisguised violence could be forgiven: But such a mockery of the undertaking, such an abuse of religion, with all men of penetration were the objects of peculiar resentment.

The parliament, conscious of their decay in popularity, seeing a formidable armed force advance upon them, were reduced to despair, and found all their resources much inferior to the present necessity. London still retained a strong attachment to presbyterians; and its militia, which were numerous, and had acquired reputation in the wars, by a late ordinance, had been put into hands, in whom the parliament could intirely confide. This militia were now called out, and ordered to guard the line, which had been drawn about the city, in order to secure it against the King. A body of horse was ordered to be instantly levied. Many officers, who had been cashiered by the new model of the army, offered their service to the parliament. An army of 5,000 men lay in the north under the command of General Pointz, who was of the presbyterian faction; but these were too distant to be employed in so urgent a necessity. The forces, destined for Ireland, were quartered in the west; and, tho' esteemed faithful to the parliament, they also lay at a distance. Many inland garrisons were commanded by officers of the same party; but their troops, being so much

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tion. The presbyterians indeed, being commonly denominated the *moderate* party, would probably be more inoffensive. To which some will be inclined to add, however unjustly, that, having some what less of the saint in their composition, they naturally would not be so furious and mischievous.

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dispersed, could, at present, be of no manner of service. The Scotch were faithful friends and zealous for presbytery and the covenant; but a very long time was required, ere they could collect their forces, and march to the assistance of the parliament.

In this situation it was thought more prudent to submit, and by compliance to stop the fury of the enraged army. The declaration, by which the military petitioners had been voted public enemies, was recalled, and erased from the journal-book. This was the first symptom which the parliament gave of submission; and the army, hoping, by the terror of their name, to effect all their purposes, stopped at St Albans, and entered into negotiation with their masters.

Here commenced the encroachments of the military upon the civil authority. The army, in their usurpations on the parliament, copied exactly the model, which the parliament had set them, in their recent usurpations on the crown.

Every day, they rose in their demands. If one claim was granted, they had another ready, still more enormous and exorbitant; and were determined never to be satisfied. At first, they pretended only to petition for what concerned themselves as soldiers: Next, they must have a vindication of their character: Then, it was necessary, that their enemies be punished: At last, they claimed a right of modeling the whole government, and settling the nation.

They preserved, in words, all deference and respect to the parliament; but in reality, insulted them and tyrannized over them. That assembly they pretended not to accuse: It was only evil counsellors, who seduced and betrayed it.

They proceeded so far as to name eleven members, whom, in general terms, they charged with high treason, as enemies to the army and evil counsellors to the parliament. Their names were Hollis, Sir Philip Stapleton, Sir William Lewis, Sir John Clotworthy, Sir William Waller, Sir John Maynard, Massey, Glyn, Long, Harley, and Nichols. These were the very leaders of the presbyterian party.

They insisted, that these members should immediately

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be sequestred from parliament, and be thrown into prison. The commons replied, that, upon a general charge, they could not proceed so far. The army observed to them, that the cases of Strafford and Laud were direct precedents for that purpose. At last, the eleven members themselves, not to give occasion to discord, begged leave to retire from the house; and the army, for the present, seemed satisfied with this instance of submission.

Pretending, that the parliament designed to levy war upon them, and to involve the nation again in blood and confusion, they required, that all new levies should be stopped. That parliament complied with this demand.

There being no signs of resistance, the army, in order to save appearances, removed, at the desire of the parliament, to a greater distance from London, and fixed their head quarters at Reading. The King they carried along with them in all their removes.

That Prince now found himself in a better situation than at Holmby, and had attained some greater degree of freedom, as well as of consideration with both parties.

All his friends had access to him: His correspondence with the Queen was not interrupted: His chaplains were restored, and he was allowed the use of the liturgy: His children were once allowed to visit him, and passed a few days at Caversham, where he then resided. The Duke of Gloucester, his youngest son, and the Princess Elizabeth, he had not seen since he left London, at the commencement of the civil disorders; nor the Duke of Yorke, since he went to the Scotch army before Newark. No private man, unacquainted with the pleasures of a court, and the tumult of a camp, more passionately loved his family, than did this good Prince; and such an instance of indulgence in the army was extremely grateful to him. Cromwel, who was witness to the meeting of the royal family, confessed, that he never had been present at so tender a scene; and he extremely applauded the benignity, which displayed itself in the whole disposition and behavior of Charles.

That artful politician, as well as the leaders of all parties,

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payed court to the King; and fortune, notwithstanding all his calamities, seemed again to smile upon him. The parliament, afraid of his forming some accomodation with the army, spoke to him in a more respectful style than formerly; and invited him to reside at Richmond, and contribute his assistance to the settlement of the nation. All the chief officers treated him with great regard, and talked every where of restoring him to his just powers and preogatives. In the public declarations of the army, the settlement of his revenue and authority was insisted on. The royalists, every where, entertained hopes of the restoration of monarchy; and the favor, which they universally bore the army, contributed very much to discourage the parliament, and to forward their submission.

The King began to feel of what consequence he was. The more the national confusions increased, the more was he confident, that all parties would, at last, have recourse to his lawful authority, as the only remedy for the public dis-orders. *You cannot be without me*, said he, on several occasions: *You cannot compose the nation but by my assistance*. A people without government and without liberty, a parliament without authority, an army without a legal master: Distractions every where, terrors, oppressions, convulsions: From this scene of confusion, which could not long continue, all men, he hoped, would be brought to reflect on that antient government, under which they and their ances-tors had so long enjoyed happiness and tranquillity.

Tho' Charles kept his ears open to all proposals, and expected to hold the ballance betwixt the opposite parties, he entertained more hopes of accommodation with the army. He had experienced the extreme rigor of the parliament. They pretended totally to annihilate his authority: They had confined his person. In both these particulars, the army showed more indulgence. None of his friends were debarred his presence. And in the proposals, which the council of officers sent for the settlement of the nation, they insisted neither on the abolition of episcopacy, nor on the punishment of the royalists; the two points to which the King had

the most extreme reluctance: And they demanded that a period be put to the present parliament, the event for which he most ardently longed.

His conjunction too seemed more natural with the generals, than with that usurping assembly, who had so long assumed the entire authority of the state, and who had declared their resolution still to continue masters. By gratifying a few persons with titles and preferments, he might draw over, he hoped, the whole military power, and, in an instant, reinstate himself in his civil authority. To Ireton he offered the lieutenancy of Ireland: To Cromwel, the garter, the title of Earl of Essex, and the command of the army. Negotiations to this purpose were secretly conducted. Cromwel pretended to hearken to them; and was pleased to keep the door open for an accomodation, if the course of events should, at any time, render it necessary. And the King, who had no suspicion, that one, born a private gentleman, could entertain the daring ambition of seizing a sceptre, transmitted thro' a long line of monarchs; was hopeful, that he would, at last, embrace a measure, which, by all the motives of duty, interest, and safety, seemed to be recommended to him.

While Cromwel allured the King by these expectations, he still continued his scheme of reducing the parliament to subjection, and depriving them of all means of resistance. To gratify the army, the parliament invested Fairfax with the title of general in chief of all the forces in England and Ireland; and entrusted the whole military authority to a person, who, tho' well inclined to their service, was no longer at his own disposal.

They voted, that the troops, which, in obedience to them, had insisted for Ireland, and deserted the rebellious army, should be disbanded, or, in other words, be punished for their fidelity. The forces in the north, under Pointz, had already mutinied against their general, and had entered into an association with the army, which was so successfully employed in exalting the military above the civil authority.

That no resource might remain to the parliament, it was demanded, that the militia of London should be changed, the presbyterian commissioners displaced, and the command restored to those, who, during the course of the war, had constantly exercised it. Even so violent a demand, the parliament complied with, and passed a vote in obedience to the army.

By this unlimited patience, they hoped to temporize under their present difficulties, and wait a more favorable opportunity for recovering their authority and influence: But the impatience of the city lost them all the advantage of their cautious measures. A petition against the alteration of the militia was carried to Westminster, attended by the apprentices and seditious multitude, who besieged the door of the commons; and by their clamor, noise, and violence, obliged them to reverse that vote, which they had passed so lately. When gratified in this pretension, they immediately dispersed, and left the parliament at liberty.

No sooner was intelligence of this tumult conveyed to Reading, than the army were put in movement. The two houses being under force, they were resolved, they said, to vindicate, against the seditious citizens, the invaded privileges of parliament, and restore that assembly to its just freedom of debate and coucil. In their road to London, they were drawn up on Hounslow-Heath; a formidable army twenty thousand strong, and determined, without regard to laws or liberty, to pursue whatever measures their generals should dictate to them. Here the most favorable event happened, to quicken and encourage their advance. The speakers of the two houses, Manchester and Lenthal, attended with eight peers, and about sixty commoners, having secretly retired from the city, presented themselves with their maces and all the ensigns of their dignity; and complaining of the violence put upon them, applied to the army for defence and protection. With shouts and acclamations they were received: Respect was paid them as to the parliament of England: And the army, furnished with so plausible a pretext, which, in all public transactions, is of

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great consequence, advanced to chastise the rebellious city, and re-instate the violated parliament.

Neither Lenthal nor Manchester were esteemed independents; and such a step in them was intirely unexpected. But they probably foresaw, that the army must, in the end, prevail, and they were willing to pay court in time to that authority, which began to predominate in the nation.

The parliament, forced from their temporizing measures, and obliged to resign, at once, or combat for their liberty and power, prepared themselves with vigor for defence, and were determined to resist the violence of the army. The two houses immediately chose new speakers, Lord Hunsdon, and Henry Pelham: They renewed their former orders for inlisting troops: They appointed Massey to be commander: They ordered the trained bands to man the lines: And the whole city was in a ferment, and resounded with military preparations.

When any intelligence arrived, that the army stopped or retreated, the shout of *One and all*, ran with alacrity, from street to street, among the citizens: When news came of their advancing, the cry of *Treat and capitulate* was no less loud and vehement. The terror of an universal pillage and even massacre had seized the timid inhabitants.

As the army approached, Rainsborow, being sent by the general over the river, presented himself before Southwark, and was gladly received by some soldiers, who were quartered there for its defence, and who were resolved not to separate their interests from those of the army. It behoved then the parliament to submit. The army marched in triumph thro' the city; but preserved the greatest order, decency and appearance of humility. They conducted to Westminster the two speakers, who took their seats as if nothing had happened. The eleven impeached members, being accused as causes of the tumult, were expelled; and most of them retired beyond seas: Seven peers were impeached: The mayor, one sherriff, and three aldermen, sent to the tower: Several citizens and officers of the militia committed to prison: Every deed of the parliament annulled,

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from the day of the tumult till the return of the speakers: The lines about the city levelled: The militia restored to the independents: Regiments quartered in Whitehall and the Meuse: And the parliament being reduced to a regular formed servitude, a day was appointed of solemn thanksgiving to God for the restoration of its liberty.

The independent party, which, in the lower house, was considerable, and held some proportion to the presbyterian, exulted in their victory. The whole authority of the nation, they imagined, was lodged in their hands; and they had a near prospect of moulding the government into that imaginary republic, which had long been the object of their wishes. In all encroachments of the military power they had secretly concurred; and they expected, by the terror of the sword, to impose a more perfect system of liberty on the reluctant nations. All parties, the king, the church, the parliament, the presbyterians, had been guilty of errors, since the commencement of these disorders: But, it must be confessed, that this delusion of the independents and republicans was, of all others, the most contrary to common sense and the established maxims of politics. Yet were the leaders of that party, Vane, Fiennes, St John, Martin, the men in England the most celebrated for profound thought and deep contrivance; and by their well-colored pretences and professions, they had overreached the whole nation. To deceive such men would argue a superlative capacity in Cromwel; were it not, that, beside the great difference there is betwixt dark, crooked councils and true wisdom, an exorbitant passion for rule and authority will make the most prudent overlook the dangerous consequences of such measures as seem to tend, in any degree, to their advancement.

The leaders of the army, having established their dominion over the parliament and city, ventured to bring the King to Hampton-Court; and he lived, for some time, in that palace, with an appearance of dignity and freedom. Such admirable equability of temper did he possess, that, during all the variety of fortune, which he underwent, no

difference was perceived in his countenance or behavior; and tho' a prisoner, in the hands of his most inveterate enemies, he supported, towards all who approached him, the majesty of a monarch; and that, neither with less nor greater state, than what he had been accustomed to maintain. His manner, which was not in itself popular nor gracious, now appeared amiable, from its great meekness and equality.

The parliament renewed their applications, and presented him with the same conditions, which they had offered at Newcastle. The King declined acceptance; and desired them to take the proposals of the army into consideration, and make them the foundation of the public settlement. He still entertained hopes, that his negotiations with the generals would be crowned with success; tho' every thing, in that particular, bore daily a worse aspect. Most historians have thought, that Cromwel never was sincere in his professions; and that, having, by force, rendered himself master of the King's person, and, by fair pretences, acquired the countenance of the royalists, he had employed these advantages to the enslaving the parliament: And afterwards thought of nothing but the establishment of his own unlimited authority, with which he esteemed the restoration, and even life of the King, altogether incompatible. This opinion, so much warranted by the exorbitant ambition and profound dissimulation of his character, meets with ready belief; tho' 'tis more agreeable to the narrowness of human views, and the natural darkness of futurity, to suppose, that this daring usurper was guided by events, and did not, as yet, foresee, with any assurance, that unparalleled greatness, which he afterwards attained. Many writers of that age have asserted,<sup>9</sup> that he really intended to make a private

9. Salmonet, Ludlow, Hollis, &c. all these, especially the last, being the declared inveterate enemies of Cromwel, are the more to be credited, when they advance any fact, which may serve to apologize for his violent and criminal conduct. There prevails a story, that Cromwel intercepted a letter, wrote to the Queen, where the King said, that he would first raise and then destroy Cromwel. But, beside

bargain with the King; a measure, which carried the most plausible appearance both for his safety and advancement: But that he found insuperable difficulties in reconciling to it the wild humors of the army. The horror and antipathy

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that this conduct seems to contradict the character of the King, it is, on other accounts, totally unworthy of credit. It is first told by Roger Coke, a very passionate historian, who wrote so late as the revolution, and who mentions it only as a rumor. In the Memoirs of Lord Broghill, we meet with another story of an intercepted letter, which deserves some more attention, and agrees very well with the narration here given. It is thus related by Mr Maurice, chaplain to Roger Earl of Orrery. 'Lord Orrery, in the time of his greatness with Cromwel, just after he had so seasonably relieved him in his great distress at Clonmell, riding out of Youghall one day with him and Ireton, they fell into discourse about the King's death. Cromwell thereupon said more than once, that if the King had followed his own judgment, and had been attended by none but trusty servants, he had fooled them all; and that once they had a mind to have closed with him, but, upon something that happened, fell off from that design. Orrery finding them in good humor, and being alone with them, asked, if he might presume to desire to know, why they would once have closed with his Majesty, and why they did not. Cromwel very freely told him, he would satisfy him in both his queries. The reason (says he) why we would have closed with the King was this: We found that the Scotch and presbyterians began to be more powerful than we, and were likely to agree with him, and leave us in the lurch. For this reason we thought it best to prevent them by offering first to come in upon reasonable conditions: But whilst our thoughts were taken up with this subject, there came a letter to us from one of our spies, who was of the King's bed-chamber, acquainting us, that our final doom was decreed that very day; that he could not possibly learn what it was, but we might discover it, if we could but intercept a letter sent from the King to the Queen, wherein he informed her of his resolution; that this letter was sown up in the skirt of a saddle, and the bearer of it would come with the saddle upon his head, about ten of the clock that night, to the Blue Boar in Holbourn, where he was to take horse for Dover. The messenger knew nothing of the letter in the saddle, tho' some in Dover did. We were at Windsor (said Cromwel) when we received this letter, and immediately upon the receipt of it, Ireton and I resolved to take one trusty fellow with us, and to go in troopers habits to that inn. We did so; and leaving our man at the gate of the inn, (which had a wicket only open to let persons in and out) to watch and give us notice when any man

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of these enraged fanatics had, for many years, been artfully fomented against Charles; and tho' their principles were, on all occasions, easily warped and eluded by private interest, yet was some coloring requisite, and a flat contradiction to all former professions and tennets could not safely be proposed to them. 'Tis certain, at least, that Cromwell made use of this reason, why he admitted rarely of visits from the King's friends, and showed less favor than formerly to the royal cause. The agitators, he said, had rendered him odious to the army, and had represented him as a traitor, who, for the sake of private interest, was ready to betray the cause of God to the great enemy of piety and religion. Desperate projects too, he asserted to be secretly formed, for the murder of the King; and he pretended much to dread lest all his authority, and that of the commanding officers, would not be able to restrain these enthusiasts from their bloody purposes.

Intelligence being daily brought to the King of menaces

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came in with a saddle, we went into a drinking stall. We there continued, drinking cans of beer, till about ten of the clock, when our sentinel at the gate gave us notice, that the man with the saddle was come. We rose up presently, and just as the man was leading out his horse saddled, we came up to him with drawn swords, and told him, we were to search all that went in and out there; but as he looked like an honest man, we would only search his saddle and so dismiss him. The saddle was ungirt, we carried it into the stall, where we had been drinking, and ripping open one of the skirts, we there found the letter we wanted. Having thus got it into our hands, we delivered the man (whom we had left with our sentinel) his saddle, told him he was an honest fellow, and bid him go about his business; which he did, pursuing his journey without more ado, and ignorant of the harm he had suffered. We found in the letter, that his Majesty acquainted the Queen, that he was courted by both factions, the Scotch presbyterians and the army; and that those which bade the fairest for him should have him: but yet he thought he should close with the Scotch sooner than with the other. Upon this we returned to Windsor; and finding we were not like to have good terms from the King, we from that time vowed his destruction.' 'This relation suiting well enough with other passages and circumstances at this time, I have inserted to gratify the reader's curiosity.' Carte's Ormond, vol. ii. p. 12.

thrown out by the agitators; he began to think of retiring from Hampton-Court, and of putting himself in some place of safety. The guards were doubled upon him: The promiscuous concourse of people restrained: A more jealous care exerted in attending his person: All, under color of protecting him from danger; but really with a view of making him uneasy in his present situation. These artifices soon operated the intended effect. Charles, who was naturally apt to be swayed by council, and who had not then access to any good council, took suddenly a resolution of withdrawing himself, tho' without any concerted, at least, any rational scheme, for the future disposal of his person. Attended only by Sir John Berkeley, Ashburnham, and Leg, he privately left Hampton-Court; and his escape was not discovered, till near an hour after; when those, who entered his chamber, found on the table some letters, directed to the parliament, to the general and to the officer, who had attended him. All night, he travelled thro' the forest, and arrived next day at Tichfield, a seat of the Earl of Southampton, where the Countess dowager resided, a woman of great honor, to whom, the King knew, he might safely entrust his person. Before he arrived at this place, he had gone to the sea-coast; and expressed great anxiety, that a ship, which he seemed to look for, had not arrived; and from thence, Berkeley and Leg, who were not in the secret, conjectured, that his intention was to transport himself beyond seas.

The King could not hope to remain long concealed at Tichfield: What measure should next be embraced, was the question. The isle of Wight was in the neighborhood, of which Hammond was governor. This man was intirely dependent on Cromwel. At his recommendation he had married a daughter of the famous Hambden, who, during his life time, had been an intimate friend of Cromwel, and whose memory was ever religiously respected by him. These circumstances were very unfavorable: Yet, because the governor was nephew to Dr Hammond, the King's beloved chaplain, and had acquired a good character in the army, it was thought proper to have recourse to him, in the present

exigence, when no other rational expedient could be thought of. Ashburnham and Berkeley were dispatched to the island. They had orders not to inform Hammond of the place, where the King lay concealed, till they had first obtained a promise of him not to deliver up his Majesty, tho' the parliament and army should require him; but to restore him to his liberty, if he could not defend himself. This promise, it is evident, would have been a very slender security: Yet even without exacting it, Ashburnham, imprudently, if not treacherously, brought Hammond to Tichfield; and the King was obliged to put himself into his hands, and to attend to Carisbroke castle in the isle of Wight, where, tho' received with great demonstrations of respect and duty, he was in reality a prisoner.

Lord Clarendon is positive, that the King, when he fled from Hampton-Court, had no intention of going to this island; and indeed, all the circumstances of that historian's narrative, which I have here followed, strongly favor this opinion. But there remains a letter of Charles to the Earl of Laneric, secretary of Scotland; where he plainly intimates, that that measure was voluntarily embraced, and even insinuates, that, if he had thought proper, he might have been in Jersey or any other place of safety.<sup>10</sup> Perhaps,

10. These are the words: 'Laneric; I wonder to hear (if that be true) that some of my friends say, that my going to Jersey would much more have furthered my personal treaty, than my coming hither, for which, as I see no color of reason, so I had not been here, if I had thought that fancy true, or had not been secured of a personal treaty; of which I neither do, nor I hope will repent: For I am daily more and more satisfied with the governor, and find these islanders very good, peaceable, and quiet people. This encouragement I have thought not unfit for you to receive, hoping at least it may do good upon others, tho' needless to you.' Burnet's Memoirs of Hamilton, p. 326. See also Rushworth, part 4. vol. ii. p. 941. All the writers of that age, except Clarendon, represent the King's going to the isle of Wight as voluntary and intended. Perhaps the King thought it little to his credit, to be trepanned into this measure, and was more willing to take it on himself as intirely voluntary. Perhaps, he thought it would encourage his friends, if they thought him in a situation, which was not disagreeable to him.

he still confided in the promises of the generals; and flattered himself, that, if he were removed from the fury of the agitators, by which his life was immediately threatened, they would execute what they had so often promised in his favor.

Whatever may be the truth in this matter; for it is impossible fully to ascertain the truth; Charles was never guilty of a weaker step, nor one more agreeable to Cromwel and all his enemies. He was now lodged in a place, removed from his partizans, at the disposal of the army, whence it would be very difficult to deliver him, either by force or artifice. And tho' it was always in the power of Cromwel, whenever he pleased, to have sent him thither; yet such a measure would have been very invidious, if not accompanied with some danger. That the King should voluntarily throw himself into the snare, and forfeit his own reputation of prudence, in order to gratify his implacable persecutors, was to them an incident peculiarly fortunate, and proved in the issue very fatal to him.

Cromwel, being now intirely master of the parliament, and free from all anxiety, with regard to the King's person, applied himself seriously to quell those disorders, which he himself had so artfully raised, and so successfully employed, against both King and parliament. In order to engage the troops into a rebellion against their masters, he had encouraged a very arrogant spirit among the inferior officers and private men; and the camp, in many respects, bore rather the appearance of civil liberty than of military obedience. The troops themselves were formed into a species of republic; and the plans of imaginary republics for the settlement of the state, were, every day, the topics of conversation among these armed legislators. Royalty it was agreed to abolish: Nobility must be set aside: Even all ranks of men be levelled; and an universal equality of property, as well as power, introduced among the citizens. The saints, they said, were the salt of the earth: An intire parity had place among the elect: And, by the same rule, that the apostles were exalted from the most ignoble pro-

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fessions, the meanest sentinel, if enlightened by the spirit, was intitled to equal regard with the greatest commander. In order to wean the soldiers from these licentious maxims, Cromwel had issued orders for discontinuing the meetings of the agitators; and he pretended to pay intire obedience to the parliament, whom, being now reduced fully to subjection, he proposed to make, for the future, the instruments of his authority. But the *Levellers*, for so that party in the army was called, having experienced the sweets of dominion, would not so easily be deprived of it. They secretly continued their meetings: They asserted, that their officers, as much as any part of the church or state, stood in need of reformation: Several regiments joined in seditious remonstrances and petitions: Separate rendezvous were concerted: And every thing tended to total anarchy and confusion. But this distemper was soon cured by the rough, but dexterous hand of Cromwel. He chose the occasion of a review, that he might mark the greater boldness, and spred the terror the wider. He seized the ringleaders before their companions: Held in the field a council of war: Shot one mutineer instantly; and struck such dread into the rest, that they presently threw down the symbols of sedition, which they had displayed, and thenceforth returned to their wonted discipline and obedience.

Cromwel had great deference for the council of Ireton; a man, who, having grafted the soldier on the lawyer, the statesman on the saint, had adopted such principles as were fitted to introduce the severest tyranny, while they seemed to encourage the most unbounded licence, in human society. Fierce in his nature, tho' probably sincere in his intentions; by arbitrary power he proposed to establish liberty, and, in prosecution of his godly purposes, he esteemed himself dispensed from all the ordinary rules of morality, by which inferior mortals must allow themselves to be governed. At his suggestion, Cromwel secretly called at Windsor a council of the chief officers, in order to deliberate concerning the settlement of the nation, and the future disposal of the King's person. In this conference, which commenced

with devout prayers, poured forth by Cromwel himself and other inspired persons (for the officers of this army received inspiration with their commission), was first opened the daring and unheard of council, of bringing the King to justice, and of punishing, by a judicial sentence, their sovereign for his pretended tyranny and mal-administration. While Charles lived, even tho' restrained to the closest prison, conspiracies, they knew, and insurrections would never be wanting, in favor of a prince, who was so extremely revered and beloved by his own party, and whom the nation in general began to regard with great affection and compassion. To murder him privately was exposed to the imputation of injustice and cruelty, aggravated by the baseness of such a crime; and every odious epithet of *Traitor* and *Assassin* would, by the general voice of mankind, be undisputedly ascribed to the actors of such a villany. Some unexpected procedure must be attempted, which would astonish the world by its novelty, would bear the semblance of justice, and cover its barbarity by the audaciousness of the enterprize. Striking in with the fanatical notions of the intire equality of mankind, it would ascertain the devoted obedience of the army, and serve as a general engagement against the royal family, whom, by their open and united deed, they would so atrociously affront and injure.<sup>11</sup>

This measure, therefore, being secretly resolved on, it was requisite, by degrees, to make the parliament adopt it, and to conduct them from violence to violence; till this last act of atrocious iniquity should seem, in a manner, wholly inevitable. The King, in order to remove those fears and jealousies, which were perpetually pleaded as reasons for every invasion of the constitution, had offered, by a mes-

11. The following was a very favorite text among the fanatics of that age. 'Let the high praises of God be in the mouths of his saints, and a twofold sword in their hands, to execute vengeance upon the heathen and punishment upon the people; to bind their kings with chains and their nobles with fetters of iron; to execute upon them the judgments written: This honor have all his saints.' Psalm cxlix. ver. 6, 7, 8, 9. Hugh Peters, the mad chaplain of Cromwel, preached frequently upon this text.

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sage, sent from Carisbroke castle, to resign, during his own life, the power of the militia and the nomination to all the great offices; provided, that, after his death, these prerogatives should again return to the crown: But the parliament acted intirely as victors and enemies; and, in all their transactions with him, payed no longer any regard to equity or reason. At the instigation of the independents and army, they neglected this offer, and framed four propositions, which they sent him as preliminaries; and, before they would deign to treat, they demanded his positive assent to all of them. By one, he was required to invest the parliament with the military power for twenty years, along with an authority to levy whatever money should be requisite for exercising it: And even after twenty years were elapsed, they reserved a right of reassuming the same authority, whenever they should declare the safety of the kingdom to require it. By the second, he must recall all his proclamations and declarations against the parliament, and acknowledge them to have taken arms for their just and necessary defence. By the third, he was to annull all the acts, and void all the patents of peerage, which had passed the great seal, since it had been carried from London by Lord Littleton, the chancellor. By the fourth, he gave the two houses power to adjourn as they thought fit: A demand seemingly of no great consequence; but contrived by the independents, that they might be able to remove the parliament to places, where it should remain in perpetual subjection to the army.

The King regarded the pretension as most unusual and exorbitant, that he should make such concessions, while insecure of any settlement; and blindly trust his enemies for the conditions, which they were afterwards to grant him. He required, therefore, a personal treaty with the parliament, and desired that all the terms, on both sides, should be adjusted, before any concessions, on either side, should be insisted on. The republican party in the house pretended to take fire at this answer; and openly inveighed, in the most virulent terms, against the person and govern-

ment of the King; whose name, hitherto, had commonly, in all debates, been mentioned with some degree of reverence. Ireton, seeming to speak the sense of the army, under the appellation of many thousand godly men, who had ventured their lives in defence of the parliament, said, That the King, by denying the four bills, had refused safety and protection to his people; that their obedience to him was but a reciprocal duty for his protection of them; and that, as he had failed on his part, they were free'd from all obligations to allegiance, and must settle the nation, without consulting any longer so misguided a prince. Cromwel, after giving an ample character of the valor, good affections, and godliness of the army, subjoined, That it was expected the parliament should govern and defend the kingdom by their own power and resolutions, and not accustom the people any longer to expect safety and government from an obstinate man, whose heart God had hardened; that those, who, at the expence of their blood, had hitherto defended the parliament from so many dangers, would still continue, with fidelity and courage, to protect them against all opposition, in this vigorous measure. 'Teach them not,' added he, 'by neglecting your own safety and that of the kingdom (in which theirs too is involved) to imagine themselves betrayed, and their interests abandoned to the rage and malice of an irreconcilable enemy, whom, for your sake, they have dared to provoke. Beware, (*and at these words he laid his hand on his sword*) beware, lest despair cause them to seek safety by some other means, than by adhering to you, who know not how to consult your own safety.' Such arguments prevailed; tho' ninety one members had still the courage to oppose. It was voted, that no more addresses be made to the King, nor any letters or messages received from him; and that it be treason for any one, without leave of the two houses, to have any intercourse with him. The Lords concurred in the same ordinance.

By this vote of non-address, for so it was called, the King was, in reality, dethroned, and the whole constitution formally overthrown. So violent a measure was supported by

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a declaration no less violent. The blackest calumnies were there thrown upon him; such as, even in their famous remonstrance, the commons thought proper to omit, as incredible and extravagant: The poisoning his father, the betraying Rochelle, the contriving the Irish massacre. By blasting his fame, had that injury been in their power, they formed a very proper prologue to the murthering of his person.

No sooner had the King refused his assent to the four bills, than Hammond, by orders from the army, removed all his servants, cut off all correspondence with his friends, and shut him up in close confinement. To Sir Philip Warwick the King afterwards showed an old decrepid man, who, he said, was employed to kindle his fire, and was the best company he enjoyed, during several months that this rigorous confinement lasted. No amusement was allowed him, or society, which might relieve his anxious thoughts: To be speedily poisoned or assassinated was the only prospect, which he had, every moment, before his eyes: For he entertained no apprehension of a judicial sentence and execution, an event, of which no history, hitherto, furnished an example. Meanwhile, the parliament were very industrious in publishing, from time to time, the intelligence, which they received from Hammond; how chearful the King was, how pleased with every one who approached him, how satisfied in his present condition: As if the view of such admirable benignity and constancy had not been more proper to inflame, than allay, the general compassion of the people. The great source, whence the King derived consolation amidst all his calamities, was undoubtedly religion, which, in him, seems to have contained nothing fierce nor gloomy, nothing which enraged him against his adversaries, or terrified him with the dismal prospect of futurity. While every thing around him bore a hostile aspect; while friends, family, relations, whom he passionately loved, were placed at a distance, and impotent to serve him; he reposed himself with confidence in the arms of that Being who penetrates and sustains all nature, and whose

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severities, if received with piety and resignation, he regarded as the surest pledge of unexhausted favor.

The parliament and army, meanwhile, enjoyed not, in tranquility, that power, which they had obtained with so much violence and injustice. Combinations and conspiracies, they were sensible, were every where forming around them; and Scotland, whence the King's cause had received the first fatal blow, seemed now to promise it support and assistance.

Before the delivery of the King's person at Newcastle, and much more, since that event, the subjects of discontent had been daily multiplying betwixt the two kingdoms. The independents, who began to prevail, took all occasions of mortifying the Scotch, whom the presbyterians looked on with the greatest affection and veneration. When the Scotch commissioners, who, joined to a committee of English lords and commons, had managed the war, were ready to depart, it was proposed in parliament to give them thanks for their civilities and good offices. The independents obtained, that the words, *Good offices*, should be struck out; and thus the whole brotherly friendship and intimate alliance with the Scotch resolved itself into an acknowledgement of their being well-bred gentlemen.

The advance of the army to London, the subjection of the parliament, the seizing of the King at Holmby, his confinement in Carisbrooke castle, were so many blows, sensibly felt by the Scotch; as threatening the final overthrow of presbytery, to which they were so passionately devoted. The covenant was profanely called, in the house of commons, an almanac out of date; and that impiety, tho' complained of, had passed uncensured. Instead of being able to determine and establish orthodoxy by the sword and by penal statutes, they saw the sectarian army, who were absolute masters, claim an unbounded liberty of conscience, which the presbyterians regarded with the utmost horror. All the violences, put on the King, they loudly blamed, as contrary to the covenant, by which they stood engaged to defend his royal person. And those very actions,

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of which themselves had been guilty, they denominated treason and rebellion, when executed by an opposite party.

The Earls of Loudon, Lauderdale, and Laneric, who were sent to London, protested against the four propositions; as containing too great a diminution of the King's civil power, and providing no security for religion. They complained, that, notwithstanding this protestation, the propositions were still insisted on; contrary to the solemn league and treaty betwixt the two nations. And when they accompanied the English commissioners to the isle of Wight, they secretly formed a treaty with the King, for arming Scotland in his favor.

Three parties, at that time, prevailed in Scotland. The *Royalists*, who insisted upon the restoration of the King's authority, without any regard to religious sects or tenets: Of these Montrose, tho' absent, was regarded as the head. The *Rigid presbyterians*, who hated the King, even more than they abhorred toleration; and who were resolved to give him no assistance, till he should sign the covenant: These were governed by Argyle. The *Moderate presbyterians*, who endeavored to reconcile the interests of religion and the crown, and hoped, by supporting the presbyterian party in England, to suppress the sectarian army, and reinstate the parliament, as well as King, in their just freedom and authority: The two brothers, Hamilton and Laneric, were leaders of this party.

When Pendennis castle was surrendered to the parliamentary army, Hamilton, who then obtained his liberty, returned into Scotland; and being generously determined to remember antient favors, more than recent injuries, he immediately embraced, with zeal and success, the protection of the royal cause. From the parliament he obtained a vote to arm 40,000 men, in support of the King's authority, and to call over a considerable body under Monro, who commanded the Scotch forces in Ulster. And tho' he openly protested, that the covenant was the foundation of all his measures, he secretly formed an alliance with the English royalists, Sir Marmaduke Langdale and Sir Philip Musgrave,

who surprized Berwick and Carlisle, and levied considerable forces in the north of England.

The general assembly, who sat at the same time, and were guided by Argyle, dreaded the consequences of these measures, and foresaw, that, if successful, the opposite party would effect the restoration of monarchy, without the establishment of presbytery in England. To join the King before he had subscribed the covenant, was, in their eyes, to restore him to his honor before Christ was restored to his; and they thundered out anathemas against every one, who payed obedience to the parliament. Two supreme independent judicatories were erected in the kingdom; one threatening the people with damnation and eternal torments, the other with imprisonment, banishment, and military execution. The people were distracted in their choice; and the armament of Hamilton's party, tho' seconded by all the civil power, went on but slowly. The royalists he would not, as yet, allow to join him, lest he might give offence to the ecclesiastical party; tho' he secretly promised them trust and preferment, as soon as his army should be advanced into England.

While the Scotch were making preparations for the invasion of England, every part of that kingdom was agitated with tumults, insurrections, conspiracies, discontents. 'Tis seldom, that the people gain any thing by revolutions in government; because the new settlement, jealous and insecure, must commonly be supported with more expence and severity than the old: But on no occasion was the truth of this maxim more sensibly felt, than in the present situation of England. Complaints against the oppression of ship-money, against the tyranny of the star-chamber, had rouzed the people to arms: And having gained a compleat victory over the crown, they found themselves loaded with a multiplicity of taxes, formerly unknown; and scarce an appearance of law and liberty remained in the administration. The presbyterians, who had chiefly supported the war, were enraged to find the prize, just when it seemed within their reach, by violence snatched from them. The

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royalists, disappointed in their expectations, by the cruel treatment, which the King received from the army, were highly animated to restore him to liberty, and recover the advantages, which they had unfortunately lost. All orders of men were inflamed with indignation at seeing the military prevail over the civil power, and king and parliament at once reduced to subjection by a mercenary army. Many persons of family and distinction, from the beginning of the war, had adhered to the parliament: But all those were, by the new party, deprived of authority; and every office was entrusted to the vilest and most ignoble part of the nation. A base populace exalted above their superiors: Hypocrites exercising iniquity under the vizor of religion: In these two circumstances are comprised the utmost depravity of human nature; and these were now found united, in the same usurped and illegal administration.

Tho' the whole nation seemed to combine in their hatred of military tyranny, the ends, which the several parties proposed, were so different, that little concert was observed in their insurrections. Langhorne, Poyer, and Powel, presbyterian officers, who commanded bodies of troops in Wales, were the first who declared themselves, and drew together a considerable army in those parts, which were extremely devoted to the royal cause. An insurrection was raised in Kent by young Hales and the Earl of Norwich. Lord Capel, Sir Charles Lucas, Sir George Lisle, excited commotions in Essex. The Earl of Holland, who had several times changed party, since the commencement of the civil wars, endeavored to collect forces in Surrey. Pomfret castle in Yorkeshire was surprized by Morrice. Langdale and Musgrave were in arms, and masters of Berwick and Carlisle in the north.

What seemed the most dangerous circumstance, the general spirit of discontent had seized the fleet. Seventeen ships, lying in the mouth of the river, declared for the King; and putting Rainsborrow, their admiral, ashore, sailed over to Holland, where the Prince of Wales took the command of them.

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The English royalists exclaimed loudly against Hamilton's delays, which they attributed to a refined policy in the Scotch; as if their intentions were, that all the King's party should first be suppressed, and the victory remain intire to the presbyterians. Hamilton, with better reason, complained of the precipitant humor of the English royalists, who, by their ill-timed insurrections, forced him to march his army, before his levies were compleated, or his preparations in any forwardness.

No commotions, beyond a tumult of the apprentices, which was soon suppressed, were raised in London: The terror of the army kept the citizens in subjection. The parliament was so overawed, that they declared the Scotch to be enemies, and all who joined them, traitors. Ninety members, however, of the lower house had the courage to dissent from this vote.

Cromwel and the military council, with vigor and conduct prepared themselves for defence. The establishment of the army was, at this time, 26,000 men; but by inlisting supernumeraries, the regiments were considerably augmented. Colonel Horton first attacked the revolted troops in Wales, and gave them a considerable defeat. The broken remnants threw themselves into Pembroke, and were there closely besieged, and soon after taken, by Cromwel. Lambert was opposed to Langdale and Musgrave in the north, and gained advantages over them. Sir Michael Livesey defeated the Earl of Holland at Kingston, and pursuing his victory, took him prisoner at St Neots. Fairfax, having routed the Kentish royalists at Maidstone, followed the broken army: And when they joined themselves to the Essex insurgents, and threw themselves into Colchester; he laid siege to that place, which defended itself to the last extremity. A new fleet was manned, and sent out under the command of Warwic, to oppose the revolted ships, of which the Prince was admiral.

While the forces were employed in all quarters, the parliament regained its liberty, and began to act with its wonted courage and spirit. The members, who had withdrawn from

the terror of the army, returned; and infusing boldness into their companions, restored to the presbyterian party the ascendant, which it had formerly lost. The eleven impeached members were recalled, and the vote, by which they were expelled, was reversed. The vote too of non-addresses was repealed; and commissioners, five peers and ten commoners, were sent to Newport in the isle of Wight, in order to treat with the King. He was allowed to summon several of his friends and old counsellors, that he might have their advice in this important transaction. The theologians on both sides, armed with their syllogisms and citations, attended as auxiliaries. By them, the flame had first been raised; and their appearance was but a bad prognostic of its extinction. Any other instruments seemed better adapted for a treaty of pacification.

When the King presented himself to this company, a great and sensible alteration was remarked in his aspect from what appeared the year before, when he resided at Hampton-Court. The moment his servants had been removed, he had laid aside all care of his person, and had allowed his beard and hair to grow, and to hang dishevelled and neglected. His hair was become almost intirely gray; either from the decline of years, or from that load of sorrows, under which he labored and which, tho' borne with admirable constancy, preyed inwardly on his sensible and tender mind. His friends beheld with compassion, and perhaps even his enemies, that *gray and discrowned head*; as he himself terms it, in a copy of verses, which the truth of the sentiment, rather than the elegance of expression, renders very pathetic. Having in vain endeavored by courage to defend his throne from his armed adversaries, it now behoved him, by reason and persuasion, to save some fragments of it, from these peaceful, and no less implacable negotiators.

The vigor of the King's mind, notwithstanding the seeming decline of his body, here appeared unbroken and undecayed. The parliamentary commissioners would allow none of his council to be present, and refused to enter into

reasoning with any but himself. He alone, during the transactions of two months, was obliged to sustain the argument against fifteen men of the greatest parts and capacity in both houses; and no advantage was ever obtained over him. This was the scene, above all others, in which he was qualified to excel. A quick conception, a cultivated understanding, a chaste elocution, a dignified manner; by these accomplishments he triumphed in all discussions of cool and temperate reasoning. *The King is much changed*, said the Earl of Salisbury to Sir Philip Warwic: *He is extremely improved of late. No*, replied Sir Philip; *he was always so. But you are now at last sensible of it.* Sir Henry Vane, to his fellow-commissioners, drew an argument from the King's uncommon abilities, why the terms of pacification must be rendered more strict and rigid.<sup>12</sup> But Charles's capacity shone not equally in action as in reasoning.

The first point insisted on by the parliamentary commissioners, was the recalling all his proclamations and declarations against the parliament, and the acknowledging, that they had taken arms in their own defence. He frankly offered the former concession; but long scrupled the latter. The falsehood, as well as indignity of that acknowledgement, begot in his breast an extreme reluctance against it. The King had, no doubt, in some particulars of moment, invaded, from a seeming necessity, the privileges of his people: But having renounced all claim to these usurped powers, having confessed his errors, and having repaired every breach of the constitution, and even erected new ramparts, in order to secure it; he could no longer, at the commencement of the war, be represented as the aggressor. However it might be pretended, that the former display of his arbitrary inclinations, or rather his monarchical principles, rendered an offensive or preventive war in the parliament prudent and reasonable; it could never, in any propriety of speech, make it be denominated a defensive one. But the parliament, sensible, that the letter of the law condemned them as rebels and traitors; esteemed this point

12. Clarendon, Sir Edward Walker.

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intirely requisite for their future security: And the King, finding, that peace could be obtained on no other terms, at last yielded to it. He only entered a protest, which was admitted; that no concession, made by him, should be valid, unless the whole treaty of pacification was concluded.

He agreed, that the parliament should retain, during the term of twenty years, the whole power of the militia and army, and of levying what money they pleased for their support. He even yielded to them the right of resuming, at any time afterwards, this authority, whenever they should declare it requisite for public safety. In effect, the important power of the sword was for ever ravished from him and his successors.

He agreed, that all the great offices, during twenty years, should be filled by both houses of parliament, He relinquished to them the entire government of Ireland, and the conduct of the war there. He renounced the power of the wards, and accepted of 100,000 pounds a year in lieu of it. He acknowledged the validity of their great seal, and gave up his own. He abandoned the power of creating peers without consent of parliament. And he agreed, that all the debts, contracted in order to support the war against him, should be paid by the people.

So great were the alterations, made on the English constitution by this treaty, that the King said, not without reason, that he had been more an enemy to his people by these concessions, could he have prevented them, than by any other action of his life.

Of all the demands of the parliament, Charles refused only two. Tho' he relinquished almost every power of the crown, he would neither give up his friends to punishment, nor desert what he esteemed his religious duty. The severe repentance, which he had undergone, for abandoning Strafford, had, no doubt, confirmed him in the resolution never again to be guilty of a like error. His long solitude and severe afflictions had contributed extremely to rivet him the more in those pious prejudices, which had ever a considerable influence over him.

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The estates of the royalists being, at that time, almost intirely under sequestration, Charles, who could give them no protection, consented, that they should pay such compositions, as they and the parliament could agree on; and begged only, that they might be made as moderate as possible. He had not the disposal of offices; and it seemed but a small sacrifice to consent, that a certain number of his friends should be rendered incapable of public employments. But when the parliament demanded a bill of attainder and banishment against seven persons, the Marquis of Newcastle, Lord Digby, Lord Biron, Sir Marmaduke Langdale, Sir Richard Granville, Sir Francis Doddington, and judge Jenkins, the King utterly refused compliance: Their banishment for a limited time he was willing to agree to.

Religion was the fatal point about which the differences had first arisen; and of all others, was the least capable of composition or moderation betwixt the contending parties. The parliament insisted on the establishment of presbytery, the sale of the chapter lands, the abolition of all forms of prayer, and strict laws against the catholics. The King offered to retrench every thing, which he did not esteem of apostolical institution: He was willing to abolish archbishops, deans, prebends, canons: He offered, that the chapter lands should be let at low leases during ninety nine years: He consented, that the present church-government should continue during three years: After that time, he required not, that any thing should be restored to bishops but the power of ordination, and even that power to be exercised by advice of the presbyters. If the parliament, upon the expiration of that period, was not willing, all other branches of episcopal jurisdiction were abolished, and a new form of church-government must, by common consent, be established. The book of common prayer he was willing to renounce, but required the liberty of using some other liturgy in his own chappel: A demand which, tho' seemingly very reasonable, was positively refused by the parliament.

It may be proper for the information of posterity to

observe, that bread and wine in the communion, and water in baptism, being consecrated by a presbyter, these rites were esteemed by the King invalid, unless the presbyter himself had been previously consecrated by a bishop: And consequently, without that order, the spiritual benefit, accruing from the participation of these elements, was entirely lost. If this prejudice of the King appear superstitious and contemptible to some philosophical minds, as certainly the question is very minute; it ought still to be considered, that he was supporting the religion, which, at his accession, he found, by law, established in his kingdoms.

In the dispute on the articles, one is not surprised, that two of the parliamentary theologians should tell the King, *That if he did not consent to the utter abolishing episcopacy, he would be damned.* But it is not without some indignation, that we read the following vote of the lords and commons. ‘The houses, out of their detestation, to that abominable idolatry used in the mass, do declare, that they cannot admit of or consent unto any such indulgence in any law, as is desired by his Majesty for exempting the Queen and her family from the penalties to be enacted against the exercise of the mass.’ The treaty of marriage, the regard to the Queen’s sex and high station, even common humanity; all considerations were undervalued, in comparison of their bigotted prejudices.<sup>13</sup>

13. The King composed a letter to the Prince, in which he related the whole course of this transaction, and accompanied his narrative, with several wise, as well as pathetical reflections and advices. The words with which he concluded the letter, are remarkable. ‘By what hath been said, you see how long I have labored in the search of peace: Do not you be disheartened to tread in the same steps. Use all worthy means to restore yourself to your rights, but prefer the way of peace: Show the greatness of your mind, rather to conquer your enemies by pardoning, than by punishing. If you saw how unmanly and unchristian the implacable disposition is in our ill-wishes, you would avoid that spirit. Censure me not for having parted with so much of our right: The price was great; but the commodity was, security to us, peace to my people. And I am confident, that another parliament would remember, how useful a king’s power is to a people’s liberty; of how much power I divested myself, that I and

It was evidently the interest, both of king and parliament, to finish their treaty as quickly as possible; and endeavor, by their combined forces, to resist, if possible, the usurping fury of the army. It seemed even the interest of the parliament, to leave, in the king's hand, a considerable share of authority, by which he might be enabled to protect them and himself, from so dangerous an enemy. But the terms, on which they insisted, were so rigorous, that the King, fearing no worse from the most implacable enemies, was in no haste to come to a conclusion. And so great was the bigotry on both sides, that they were willing to sacrifice the greatest civil interests, rather than relinquish the most minute of their theological contentions. From these causes,

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they might meet once again in a parliamentary way, in order to agree the bounds of prince and people. Give belief to my experience, never to affect more greatness or prerogative, than what is really and intrinsically for the good of the subjects, not the satisfaction of favorites. If you thus use it, you will never want means to be a father to all, and a bountiful prince to any, whom you incline to be extraordinarily gracious to. You may perceive, that all men entrust their treasure, where it returns them interest; and if a prince, like the sea, receive and repay all the fresh streams, which the rivers entrust with him, they will not grudge, but pride themselves, to make him up an ocean. These considerations, may make you as great a prince as your father is a low one; and your state may be so much the more established, as mine hath been shaken. For our subjects have learned, I dare say, that victories over their princes, are but triumphs over themselves, and so, will more unwillingly hearken to changes hereafter. The English nation are a sober people, however, at present, infatuated. I know not but this may be the last time, I may speak to you or the world publicly. I am sensible into what hands I am fallen; and yet, I bless God. I have those inward refreshments, which the malice of my enemies cannot perturb. I have learned to busy myself, by retiring into myself, and therefore can the better digest whatever befalls me; not doubting, but God's providence will restrain our enemies power, and turn their fierceness into his praise. To conclude, if God give you success, use it humbly, and be ever far from revenge. If he restore you to your right on hard conditions, whatever you promise, keep. These men, who have violated laws, which they were bound to preserve, will find their triumphs full of trouble. But do not you think any thing in the world worth attaining, by foul and unjust means.'

## *Charles I*

assisted by the artifice of the independents, the treaty was spun out to such a length, that the invasions and insurrections were every where subdued; and the army had leisure to execute their violent and sanguinary projects.

Hamilton, having entered England with a numerous tho' undisciplined army, durst not unite his forces with those of Langdale; because the English royalists had refused to take the covenant; and the Scotch presbyterians, tho' engaged for the King, refused to join them on any other terms. The two armies marched together, tho' at some distance; nor could even the approach of the parliamentary army under Cromwel, oblige the covenanters to consult their own safety, by a close union with the royalists. When principles are so absurd and so destructive of human society, it may safely be affirmed, that, the more sincere and the more disinterested they are, they only become the more ridiculous and odious.

Cromwel feared not to oppose 8,000 men, to the numerous armies of 20,000, commanded by Hamilton and Langdale. By surprize, he attacked the latter, near Preston in Lancashire;<sup>14</sup> and, tho' the royalists made a stout resistance, yet, not being succored in time by their confederates, they were almost entirely cut in pieces. Hamilton was next attacked, put to rout, and pursued to Utoxeter, where he surrendered himself prisoner. Cromwel followed his advantage; and marching into Scotland with a considerable body, joined Argyle, who was also in arms; and having suppressed Laneric, Monro, and other moderate presbyterians, he placed the power entirely in the hands of the violent party. The ecclesiastical authority, exalted above the civil, exercised the severest vengeance on all those who had any share in Hamilton's engagement; nor could any of that party recover trust, or even live in safety, but by doing solemn and public penance for taking arms, by authority of parliament, in defence of their lawful sovereign.

The chancellor Loudon, who had, at first, countenanced Hamilton's enterprize, being terrified with the menaces of the clergy, had, sometime before, gone over to the other

14. 17th of August.

party; and he now, openly in the church, tho' invested with the highest civil character in the kingdom, did penance for his obedience to the parliament, which he termed a carnal self seeking. His penance he accompanied with so many tears, and such pathetical addresses to the people for their prayers, in this his uttermost sorrow and distress, that an universal weeping and lamentation took place among the deluded audience.

The loan of great sums of money, often to the ruin of families, was exacted of all such as lay under any suspicion of favoring the King's party, tho' their conduct had been ever so inoffensive. This was a device, fallen upon by the ruling party, in order, as they said, to reach *Heart-Malignants*. Never in this Island, was known so severe and arbitrary a government, as was generally exercised, by the patrons of liberty in both kingdoms.

The siege of Colchester terminated in a manner equally unfortunate, as Hamilton's engagement, for the royal cause. After suffering the utmost extremity of famine, after feeding on the vilest aliments; the garrison desired, at last, to capitulate. Fairfax required them to surrender at mercy; and he gave such an explanation of these terms, as to reserve to himself power, if he pleased, to put them all instantly to the sword. The officers endeavored, tho' in vain, to persuade the soldiers, by making a furious assault, to break thro', or at least, to sell their lives as dear as possible. They were obliged<sup>15</sup> to accept of the conditions offered; and Fairfax, instigated by the furious Ireton, to whom Cromwel, in his absence, had consigned over the government of the passive general, seized Sir Charles Lucas and Sir George Lisle, and resolved to make them instant sacrifices to military justice. This unusual piece of severity was loudly exclaimed against by all the prisoners. Lord Capel, fearless of danger, reproached Ireton with it; and challenged him, as they were all engaged in the same honorable cause, to exercise the same impartial vengeance on all of them. Lucas was first shot to death, and gave, himself, orders to fire, with

15. 28th of August.

## *Charles I*

the same alacrity, as if he had commanded a platoon of his own soldiers. Lisle instantly ran and kissed his dead body, and then cheerfully presented himself to a like fate. Thinking that the soldiers, destined for his execution, stood at too great a distance, he called to them to come nearer: One of them replied, *I'll warrant you, Sir, we'll hit you:* He answered smiling, *Friends, I have been nearer you when you have missed me.* Thus perished this generous spirit, not less beloved for his modesty and humanity, than esteemed for his courage and military conduct.

Soon after, a gentleman, appearing in the King's presence, clothed in mourning for Sir Charles Lucas; that humane Prince, suddenly recollecting the hard fate of his friends, payed them a tribute, which none of his own unparalleled misfortunes ever extorted from him: He dissolved into a flood of tears.

By these multiplied successes of the army, they had subdued all their enemies; and none remained but the helpless King and parliament, to oppose their violent measures and pretensions. From Cromwel's suggestion, a remonstrance was drawn by the general council of officers, and sent to the parliament. They there complain of the treaty with the King; demand his punishment for the blood spilt during the war; require a dissolution of the present parliament, and a more equal representative for the future; and assert, that, tho' servants, they are intitled to represent these important points to their masters, who are themselves no better than servants and trustees of the people. At the same time, they advance with the army to Windsor, and send Colonel Eure to seize the King's person at Newport, and convey him to Hurst castle in the neighborhood, where he was reduced to a very strict confinement.

This measure being foreseen some time before, the King was exhorted to make his escape, which was conceived to be very easy: But having given his word to the parliament not to attempt an evasion during the treaty, and three weeks afterwards; he would not, by any persuasion, be induced to hazard the reproach of violating his promise. In vain was it

urged, that a promise, given to the parliament, could no longer be binding; since they could no longer afford him protection from violence, threatened him by other persons, to whom he was bound by no tye or engagement. The King would indulge no refinements of casuistry, however plausible, in such delicate subjects; and was resolved, that whatever depredations fortune should commit upon him, she never should bereave him of his honor.

The parliament lost not courage, notwithstanding the danger, with which they were so nearly menaced. Tho' without any plan for resisting military usurpations, they generously resolved to withstand them to the utmost; and rather to bring on a violent and visible subversion of government, than lend their authority to those illegal and sanguinary measures, which were projected. They set aside the remonstrance of the army, without deigning to answer it; they voted the seizing the King's person, to be without their consent, and sent a message to the general, to know by what authority that enterprize had been executed; and they issued orders, that the army should advance no nearer London.

Hollis, the present leader of the presbyterians, was a man of the most unconquerable intrepidity; and many others of that party seconded his magnanimous spirit. By them it was proposed, that the generals and principal officers, for their disobedience and usurpations, should, by the parliament, be proclaimed traitors.

But the parliament were dealing with men, who would not be frightened by words, nor retarded by any scrupulous delicacy. The generals, under the name of Fairfax, (for he still allowed them to employ his name) marched the army to London, and placing guards in Whitehall, the Meuse, St James's, Durham-house, Covent-garden, and Palace-yard, surrounded the parliament with their hostile armaments.

The parliament, destitute of all hopes of prevailing, retained, however, courage to resist. They attempted, in the face of the army, to close their treaty with the King; and, tho' they had formerly voted his concessions with regard to

the church and delinquents to be unsatisfactory, they now took into consideration the final resolution with regard to the whole. After a violent debate of three days, it was carried, by a majority of 129 against 83, that the King's concessions were a foundation for the houses to proceed upon in the settlement of the kingdom.

Next day, when the commons were to meet, Colonel Pride, formerly a drayman, at the head of two regiments, had blockaded the house; and, directed by the Lord Grey of Groby, seized in the passage, forty one members of the presbyterian party, and sent them to a low room, which passed by the denomination of *Hell*; whence they were afterwards carried to several inns. Above 160 members more were excluded; and none were allowed to enter but the most furious and most determined of the independents; and these exceeded not the number of fifty or sixty. This atrocious invasion of the parliament, commonly passed under the name of *Colonel Pride's purge*; so much disposed were the nation to make merry with the dethroning of those members, who had violently arrogated the whole authority of the government, and deprived the King of his legal prerogatives.

The subsequent acts of the parliament, if this diminutive assembly deserves that honorable name, retain not the least appearance of law, equity, or freedom. They instantly reversed the former vote, and declared the King's concessions unsatisfactory. They determined, that no members, absent at this last vote, should be received, till they subscribed it, as agreeable to their judgment. They renewed their former vote of non-addresses. And they committed to prison, Sir William Waller, Sir John Clotworthy, the generals, Massey, Brown, and Copley, and other leaders of the presbyterians. These Men, by their credit and authority, which was then very high, had, at the commencement of the war, supported the parliament; and thereby prepared the way for the greatness of the present leaders, who, at that time, were of very small account in the nation.

The secluded members having published a paper, con-

taining a narrative of the violence, which had been exercised upon them, and a protestation, that all acts were void, which, from that time, had been transacted in the house of commons; the remaining members encountered it with a declaration, where they pronounced it false, scandalous, seditious, and tending to the destruction of the visible and fundamental government of the kingdom.

These sudden and violent revolutions held the whole nation in terror and astonishment. Every man dreaded to be trampled under foot, in the contention betwixt those mighty powers, which disputed for the sovereignty of the state. Many began to withdraw their effects beyond seas: Foreigners scrupled to give any credit to a people, so torn by domestic factions, and oppressed by military usurpation: Even the internal commerce of the kingdom began to stagnate: And in order to remedy these growing evils, the army, in their general's name, published a declaration, where they expressed their resolution of supporting law and justice.

The more to quiet the minds of men, the council of officers took into consideration, a scheme called *The agreement of the people*; being the plan of a republic, to be substituted in the place of that government which they had so violently pulled in pieces. Many parts of this scheme, for correcting the inequalities of the representative, are very plausible; had the nation been willing to receive it, or had the army intended to impose it. Other parts are too perfect for human nature, and favor strongly of that enthusiastic spirit, so prevalent thro'out the kingdom.

The height of all iniquity and fanatical extravagance yet remained; the public trial and execution of their sovereign. To this period was every measure precipitated by the furious independents. The parliamentary leaders of that party had intended, that the army should, themselves, execute that daring enterprize; and they esteemed so irregular and lawless a deed, best fitted to such irregular and lawless instruments. But the generals were too wise, to load themselves singly with the infamy, which, they knew, must attend an

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action, so shocking to the general sentiments of mankind. The parliament, they were resolved, should share with them the reproach of a measure, which was esteemed requisite for the advancement of their common ends of safety and ambition. In the house of commons, therefore, a committee was appointed to bring in a charge against the King. On their report a vote passed, declaring it treason in a king, to levy war against his parliament, and appointing a HIGH COURT OF JUSTICE to try his Majesty for this new invented treason. This vote was sent up to the house of peers.

The house of peers, during the civil wars, had, all along, been of small account; but it had lately, since the King's fall, become totally contemptible; and very few members would submit to the mortification of attending it. They happened, that day, to be more frequent than usual, and were assembled to the number of sixteen. Without one dissenting voice, and almost without deliberation, they instantly rejected the vote of the lower house, and adjourned themselves for ten days; hoping, that this delay would be able to retard the furious career of the commons.

The commons were not to be stopped by so small an obstacle. Having first established a principle, which is noble in itself, and seems specious, but is belied by all history and experience, *That the people are the origin of all just power;* they likeways declared, that the commons of England, assembled in parliament, being chosen by the people, and representing them, have the supreme authority of the nation, and that whatever is enacted and declared law by the commons, hath the force of law, without the consent of king or house of peers. The ordinance for the trial of Charles Stuart, king of England, so they called him, was again red and unanimously assented to.

In proportion to the enormity of the violences and usurpations, were augmented the pretences of sanctity, among those impious regicides. 'Should any one have voluntarily proposed,' said Cromwel in the house, 'to bring the King to punishment, I should have regarded him as the greatest

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traytor; but, since providence and necessity have cast us upon it, I will pray to God for a blessing on your councils; tho' I am not prepared to give you any advice on this important occasion. Even I myself,' subjoined he, 'when I was lately offering up petitions for his Majesty's restoration, felt my tongue cleave to the roof of my mouth, and considered this supernatural movement as the answer, which Heaven, having rejected the King, had sent to my supplications.'

A woman of Hertfordshire, illuminated by prophetical visions, desired admittance into the council of war, and communicated to them a revelation, which assured them, that their measures were consecrated from above, and ratified by a heavenly sanction. This intelligence gave them great comfort, and much confirmed them in their present resolutions.

Colonel Harrison, the son of a butcher, and the most furious enthusiast of the army, a man endowed with manners and humanity, suitable to his education and turn of mind, was sent with a strong party to conduct the King to London. At Windsor, Hamilton, who was there detained a prisoner, was admitted into the King's presence; and falling on his knees, passionately exclaimed, *My dear master! I have indeed been so to you,* replied Charles, embracing him. No farther intercourse was allowed betwixt them. The King was instantly hurried away. Hamilton long followed him with his eyes, all suffused in tears, and prognosticated, that, in this short salutation, he had given the last adieu to his friend and sovereign.

Charles himself was assured, that the period of his life was now approaching; notwithstanding all the preparations, which were making, and the intelligence, which he received, he could not, even yet, believe, that his enemies really meant to conclude their violences by a public trial and execution. A private assassination he every moment looked for; and tho' Harrison assured him, that his apprehensions were intirely groundless, it was by that catastrophe, so frequent with dethroned princes, that he expected to terminate his life. In appearance, as well as reality, the King was

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now dethroned. All the exterior symbols of sovereignty were withdrawn, and his attendants had orders to serve him without ceremony. At first, he was shocked with instances of rudeness and familiarity, to which he had been so little accustomed. *Nothing so contemptible as a despised prince!* was the reflection, which they suggested to him. But he soon reconciled his mind to this, as to his other calamities.

All the terms of the trial were now adjusted; and the high court of justice fully constituted. It consisted of 133 persons, as named by the commons; but there never met above 70: So difficult was it found, notwithstanding the blindness of prejudice, and the allurements of interest, to engage men of any name or character in that criminal measure. Cromwel, Ireton, Harrison, and the chief officers of the army, most of them of very mean birth, were members along with some of the lower house and some citizens of London. The twelve judges were at first appointed in the number: But having affirmed, that it was contrary to all the ideas of English law to try the King for treason, by whose authority all accusations for treason must necessarily be conducted; their names, as well as those of some peers, were afterwards struck out. Bradshaw, a lawyer, was chosen president. Coke was appointed sollicitor for the people of England. Dorflaus, Steele, and Aske, were named assistants. The court sat in Westminster hall.

It is observable, that, in calling over the court, when the crier pronounced the name of Fairfax, which had been inserted in the number, a voice came from one of the spectators, and cried, *He has more wit than to be here.* When the charge was read against the King, *In the name of the people of England;* the same voice exclaimed, *Not a tenth part of them.* Axtel the officer, who guarded the court, giving orders to fire into the box, whence these insolent speeches came; it was discovered, that Lady Fairfax was there, and that it was she who had had the courage to utter them. She was a person of very noble extraction, the daughter of Horace Lord Vere of Tilbury; but being seduced by the violence of the times, she had long seconded her hus-

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band's zeal against the royal cause, and was now, as well as he, struck with abhorrence at the fatal and unexpected consequence of all his boasted victories.

The pomp, the dignity, the ceremony of this transaction corresponded to the greatest conception, that is suggested in the whole annals of human kind; the delegates of a great people sitting in judgment upon their supreme magistrate, and trying him for his misgovernment and breach of trust. The sollicitor, in the name of the commons, represented, that Charles Stuart, being admitted king of England, and *entrusted* with a limited power; yet nevertheless, out of a wicked design to erect an unlimited and tyrannical government, had traiterously and maliciously levied war against the present parliament, and the people, whom they represented, and was therefore impeached as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and a public and implacable enemy to the commonwealth. After the charge was finished, the president directed his discourse to the King, and told him, that the court expected his answer.

The King, tho' long detained a prisoner, and now produced as a criminal, sustained, by his magnanimous courage, the majesty of a monarch. With great temper and dignity, he declined the authority of the court, and refused to submit himself to their jurisdiction. He represented, That, having been engaged in treaty with his two houses of parliament, and having finished almost every article, he had expected to be brought to his capital in another manner, and ere this time, to have been restored to his power, dignity, revenue, as well as to his personal liberty: That he could not now perceive any appearance of the upper house, so essential a member of the constitution; and had learned, that even the commons, whose authority was pretended, were subdued by lawless force, and were bereaved of their liberty: That he himself was their **NATIVE HEREDITARY KING**; nor was the whole authority of the state, tho' free and united, intitled to try him, who derived his dignity from the Supreme Majesty of Heaven: That, admitting those extravagant principles, which levelled all orders of

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men, the court could plead no power, delegated by the people; unless the consent of every individual, down to the meanest and most ignorant peasant, had been previously asked and obtained: That he acknowledg'd, without scruple, that he had a *trust*, committed to him, and one most sacred and inviolable; he was entrusted with the liberties of his people, and would not now betray them, by recognizing a power, founded on the most atrocious violence and usurpation: That having taken arms, and frequently exposed his life, in defence of public liberty, of the constitution, of the fundamental laws of the kingdom, he was willing, in this last and most solemn scene, to seal with his blood those precious rights, for which, tho' in vain, he had so long contended: That those, who arrogated a title to sit as his judges, were born his subjects, and born subjects to those laws, which determined, *That the king could do no wrong*: That he lay under no necessity of sheltering himself under that general maxim, which guards every English monarch, even the least deserving; but was able, by the most satisfactory reasons, to justify those measures, in which he had been engaged: That, to the whole world, and even to them, his pretended judges, he was willing, if called upon in another manner, to prove the integrity of his conduct, and assert the justice of those defensive arms, to which, unwillingly and unfortunately, he had had recourse: But that, in order to preserve an uniformity of conduct, he must, at present, foregoe the apology of his innocence; lest, by ratifying an authority, no better founded than that of robbers and pyrates, he be justly branded as the betrayer, instead of being applauded as the martyr, of the constitution.

The president, in order to support the majesty of the people, and maintain the superiority of his court above the prisoner, still inculcated, That he must not decline the authority of his judges; that they over-ruled his objections; that they were delegated by the people, the only source of every lawful power; and that kings themselves acted but in trust from that community, which had invested this high court of justice with its jurisdiction. Even according to those

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principles, which, in his present situation, he was perhaps obliged to adopt, his behavior, in general, will appear not a little harsh and barbarous; but when we consider him as a subject, and one too of no high character, addressing himself to his unfortunate sovereign, his style will be esteemed, to the last degree, audacious and insolent.

Three times was Charles produced before the court, and as often declined their jurisdiction. On the fourth, the judges having examined some witnesses, by whom it was proved, that the King had appeared in arms against the forces, commissioned by the parliament, they pronounced sentence against him. He seemed very anxious, at this time, to be admitted to a conference with the two houses; and it was supposed, that he intended to resign the crown to his son: But the court refused compliance, and considered that request as nothing but a delay of justice.

It is confessed, that the King's behavior, during this last period of his life, does great honor to his memory; and that, in all appearances before his judges, he never forgot his part, either as a prince or as a man. Firm and intrepid, he maintained, in each reply, the utmost perspicuity and justness both of thought and expression: Mild and equable, he rose into no passion at that unusual authority, which was assumed over him. His soul, without effort or affectation, seemed only to remain in the situation familiar to it, and to look down with contempt on all the efforts of human malice and iniquity. The soldiers, instigated by their superiors, were brought, tho' with difficulty, to cry aloud for justice: *Poor souls!* said the King to one of his attendants; *for a little money they would do as much against their commanders.* Some of them were permitted to go the utmost length of brutal insolence, and to spit in his face, as he was conveyed along the passage to the court. To excite a sentiment of piety, was the only effect which this inhuman insult was able to operate upon him.

The people, tho' under the rod of lawless, unlimited power, could not forbear, with the most ardent prayers, to pour forth their wishes for his preservation; and, in his

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present distress, they avowed *him*, by their generous tears, for their monarch, whom, in their misguided fury, they had before so violently rejected. The King was softened at this moving scene, and expressed his gratitude for their dutiful affection. One soldier too, seized by contagious sympathy, demanded from heaven a blessing on oppressed and fallen majesty: His officer, over-hearing his prayer, beat him to the ground in the King's presence. *The punishment. methinks, exceeds the offence:* This was the reflection, which Charles formed on that occasion.

As soon as the intention of trying the King was known in foreign nations, so enormous an action was exclaimed against by the general voice of reason and humanity; and all men, under whatever form of government they were born, rejected this example, as the unmost effort of undisguised usurpation, and the most heinous insult on law and justice. The French ambassador, by orders from his court, interposed on the King's behalf: The Dutch employed their good offices: The Scotch exclaimed and protested against this violence: The Queen, the Prince, wrote pathetic letters to the parliament. All sollicitations were found fruitless with men whose resolutions were fixed and irrevocable.

Four of Charles's friends, persons of the greatest virtue and dignity, Richmond, Hertford, Southampton, Lindsey, applied to the commons. They represented, That they were the King's counsellors, and had concurred, by their advice, with all those measures which were now imputed as crimes to their royal master: That, in the eye of the law, and according to the dictates of common reason, they alone were guilty, and were alone exposed to censure for every blameable action of the prince: And that they now presented themselves, in order to save, by their own punishment, that precious life, which it became the commons themselves, and every subject, with the utmost hazard, to protect and defend. Such a generous effort contributed to their honor; but operated nothing towards the King's safety.

The people remained in that silence and astonishment, which all great passions, when not furnished with an oppor-

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tunity of exerting themselves, naturally produce in the human mind. The soldiers, being incessantly plied with prayers, sermons, and exhortations, were wrought up to a degree of fury, and imagined, that, in the acts of the most extreme disloyalty towards their prince, consisted their highest merit in the eyes of Heaven.

Three days were allowed the King betwixt his sentence and his execution. This interval he passed with great tranquillity chiefly in reading and devotion. All his family, that remained in England, was allowed access to him. It consisted only of the Princess Elizabeth and the Duke of Gloucester: The Duke of Yorke had made his escape. Gloucester was little more than an infant: The Princess, notwithstanding her tender years, shewed a very advanced judgment; and the calamities of her family had made a deep impression upon her. After many pious consolations and advices, the King gave her in charge to tell the Queen, That, during the whole course of his life, he had never once, even in thought, failed in his fidelity towards her; and that his conjugal tenderness and his life should have an equal duration.

To the young Duke too, he could not forbear giving some advice, in order to season his mind with early principles of loyalty and obedience towards his brother, who was so soon to be his sovereign. Holding him on his knee, he said, 'Now they will cut off thy father's head.' At these words, the child looked very stedfastly upon him. 'Mark! child, what I say: They will cut off my head! and perhaps make thee a king: But mark what I say: Thou must not be a king, as long as thy brothers, Charles and James, are alive. They will cut off thy brothers' heads, when they can catch them! And thy head too they will cut off at last! And therefore I charge thee do not be made a king by them!' The Duke, sighing, replied, 'I will be torn in pieces first!' So determined an answer, from one of such tender years, filled the King's eyes with tears of joy and admiration.

Every night, during this interval, the King slept sound as usual; tho' the noise of workmen, employed in framing the

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scaffold, and other preparations for his execution, continually resounded in his ears.<sup>16</sup> The morning of the fatal day, he rose early; and calling Herbert, one of his attendants, he bade him employ more than usual care in dressing him, and preparing him for so great and joyful a solemnity. Bishop Juxon, a man endowed with the same mild and steady virtues, by which the King himself was so much distinguished, assisted him in his devotions, and payed the last melancholy duties to his friend and sovereign.

The street before Whitehall was the place destined for the execution: For it was intended, by choosing that very place, in sight of his own palace, to mark more strongly the triumph of popular justice over royal majesty. When the King came upon the scaffold, he found it so surrounded with soldiers, that he could not expect to be heard by any of the people: He addressed, therefore, his discourse to the few persons who were about him; particularly Colonel Tomlinson, to whose care he had lately been committed, and upon whom, as upon many others, his amiable deportment had operated an intire conversion. He justified his own innocence in the late fatal wars, and observed, that he had not taken arms, till after his parliament had inlisted forces; nor had he any other object in his warlike operations, than to preserve that authority intire, which by his ancestors was transmitted to him. He threw not, however, the blame upon the parliament; but was more inclined to think, that all instruments had interposed, and excited in them fears and jealousies with regard to his intentions. Tho' innocent towards his people, he acknowledged the equity of his execution in the eyes of his Maker; and observed, that an unjust sentence, which he had suffered to take effect, was now punished by an unjust sentence upon himself. He forgave all his enemies, even the chief instruments of his death; but exhorted them and the whole nation to return to the way of peace, by paying obedience to their lawful sovereign, his son and successor. When he was preparing himself for the block, Bishop Juxon called to him: 'There is, Sir, but one stage

<sup>16</sup> Walker's history of independency.

more, which, tho' turbulent and troublesome, yet is a very short one. Consider, it will soon carry you a great way; it will carry you from earth to heaven; and there you shall find, to your great joy, the prize, to which you hasten, a crown of glory.' 'I go,' replied the King, 'from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown; where no disturbance can have place.' At one blow was his head severed from his body. A man in a vizor performed the office of executioner: Another, in a like disguise, held up, to the spectators, the head, streaming with blood, and cried aloud, *This is the head of a traitor!*

It is impossible to describe the grief, indignation, and astonishment, which took place, not only among the spectators, who were overwhelmed with a flood of sorrow, but thro'out the whole nation, as soon as the report of this fatal execution was conveyed to them. Never monarch, in the full triumph of success and victory, was more dear to his people than his misfortunes and magnanimity, his patience and piety, had rendered this unhappy Prince. In proportion to their former delusions, which had animated them against him, was the violence of their return to duty and affection; while each reproached himself, either with active disloyalty towards him, or with too indolent defence of his oppressed cause. On weaker minds, the effects of these complicated passions were prodigious. Women are said to have cast forth the untimely fruit of their womb: Others fell into convulsions, or sunk into such a melancholy as attended them to their grave: Nay some, unmindful of themselves, as tho' they could not, or would not survive their beloved prince, it is reported, suddenly fell down dead. The very pulpits were bedewed with unsuborned tears; those pulpits, which had formerly thundered out the most violent imprecations and anathemas against him. And all men united in their detestation of those hypocritical parricides, who, by sanctified pretences, had so long disguised their treasons, and in this last act of atrocious iniquity, had thrown an indelible stain upon the nation.

A fresh instance of hypocrisy was displayed the very day

of the King's death. The generous Fairfax, not contented with being absent from the trial, had used all the interest, which he yet retained, to prevent the execution of the fatal sentence; and had even employed persuasion with his own regiment, tho' none else should follow him, to rescue the King from his disloyal murderers. Cromwel and Ireton, informed of this intention, endeavored to convince him, that the Lord had rejected the King; and they exhorted him to seek by prayer some direction from Heaven on this important occasion: But they concealed from him, that already they had signed the warrant for the execution. Harrison was the person appointed to join in prayer with the unwary general. By agreement, he prolonged his lamentable dirges, till intelligence arrived, that the fatal blow was struck. He then rose from his knees, and insisted with Fairfax, that this event was a miraculous and providential answer, which Heaven had sent to their devout supplications.

It being remarked, that the King, the moment before he stretched out his neck to the executioner, had said to Juxon, with a very earnest accent, the single word, REMEMBER; great mysteries were supposed to be concealed under that expression, and the generals vehemently insisted with the prelate, that he should inform them of the King's meaning. Juxon told them, that the King, having frequently charged him to inculcate on his son the forgiveness of his murderers, had taken this opportunity, in the last moment of his life, when his commands, he supposed, would be regarded as sacred and inviolable, to re-iterate that desire; and that his mild spirit thus terminated its present course, by an act of benevolence towards his greatest enemies.

The character of this Prince, as that of most men, if not of all men, was mixed; but his virtues predominated extremely above his vices, or, more properly speaking, his imperfections: For scarce any of his faults rose to that pitch as to merit the appellation of vices. To consider him in the most favorable light, it may be affirmed, that his dignity was exempted from pride; his humanity from weakness,

his bravery from rashness, his temperance from austerity, his frugality from avarice: All these virtues, in him, maintained their proper bounds, and merited unreserved praise. To speak the most harshly of him, we may affirm, that many of his good qualities were attended with some latent frailty, which, tho' seemingly inconsiderable, was able, when seconded by the extreme malevolence of his fortune, to disappoint them of all their influence: His beneficent disposition was clouded by a manner not very gracious; his virtue was tinctured with superstition; his good sense was disfigured by a deference to persons of a capacity much inferior to his own; and his moderate temper exempted him not from hasty and precipitate resolutions. He deserves the epithet of a good, rather than of a great man; and was more fitted to rule in a regular established government, than either to give way to the encroachments of a popular assembly, or finally to subdue their pretensions. He wanted suppleness and dexterity sufficient for the first measure: He was not endowed with the vigor requisite for the second. Had he been born an absolute prince, his humanity and good sense had rendered his reign happy and his memory precious: Had the limitations on prerogative been, in his time, quite fixed and ascertained, his integrity had made him regard, as sacred, the boundaries of the constitution. Unhappily, his fate threw him into a period, when the precedents of many former reigns savoured strongly of arbitrary power, and the genius of the people ran violently towards liberty. And if his political prudence was insufficient to extricate him from so perilous a situation, he may be excused; since, even after the event, when it is commonly easy to correct all errors, one is at a loss to determine what conduct, in his circumstances, could have maintained the authority of the crown, and preserved the peace of the nation. Exposed to the assaults of furious, implacable, and bigotted factions, it was never permitted him, without the most fatal consequences, to commit the smallest mistake; a condition too rigorous to be imposed on the greatest human capacity.

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Some historians have rashly questioned his good faith: But, for this reproach, the most malignant scrutiny of his conduct, which, in every circumstance, is now thorowly known, affords not any reasonable foundation. On the contrary, if we consider the extreme difficulties, to which he was so frequently reduced, and compare the sincerity of his professions and declarations; we shall avow, that probity and honor ought justly to be placed among his most shining qualities. In every treaty, those concessions, which, he thought, in conscience, he could not maintain, he never could, by any motive or persuasion, be induced to grant. And tho' some violations of the petition of right may be imputed to him; these are more to be ascribed to the lofty ideas of royal prerogative, which he had imbibed, than to any failure in the integrity of his principles.

This Prince was of a comely presence; of a sweet, but melancholy aspect. His face was regular, handsome, and well complexioned; his body strong, healthy, and justly proportioned; and being of a middle stature, was capable of enduring the greatest fatigues. He excelled in horsemanship and other exercises; and he possessed all the exterior, as well as many of the essential qualities, which form an accomplished prince.

The tragical death of Charles begot a question, whether the people, in any case, were intitled to judge and to punish their sovereign; and most men, regarding chiefly the atrocious usurpation of the pretended judges, and the merit of the virtuous, tho' perhaps not entirely innocent, prince who suffered, were inclined strongly to condemn the republican principles, as highly seditious and extravagant: But there still were a few, who, abstracting from the particular circumstances of this case, were able to consider the question in general, and were inclined to moderate, not contradict, the prevailing sentiment. Such might have been their reasoning. If ever, on any occasion, it were laudable to conceal truth from the populace; it must be confessed, that the doctrine of resistance affords such an example; and that all speculative reasoners ought to observe, with regard to this

principle, the same cautious silence, which the laws, in every species of government, have ever prescribed to themselves. Government is instituted, in order to restrain the fury and injustice of the people; and being always founded on opinion, not on force, it is dangerous, by these speculations, to weaken the reverence, which the multitude owe to authority, and to instruct them before-hand, that the case can ever happen, when they may be free'd from their duty of allegiance. Or should it be found impossible to restrain the licence of human disquisitions, it must be acknowledged, that the doctrine of obedience ought alone to be inculcated, and that the exceptions, which are very rare, ought seldom or never to be mentioned in popular reasonings and discourses. Nor is there any danger, that mankind, by this prudent reserve, should universally degenerate into a state of abject servitude. When the exception really occurs, even tho' it be not precedently expected and descanted on, it must, from its very nature, be so obvious and undisputed, as to remove all doubt, and overpower the restraint, however great, imposed by teaching the general doctrine of obedience. But betwixt resisting a prince and dethroning him, there is a very wide interval; and the abuses of power, which can warrant the latter violence, are much greater and more enormous, than those which will justify the former. History, however, supplies us with examples even of this kind; and the reality of the supposition, tho', for the future, it ought ever to be little looked for, must, by all candid inquirers, be acknowledg'd in the past. But betwixt dethroning a prince and punishing him, there is another very wide interval; and it were not strange, if even men of the most enlarged thought should question, whether human nature could ever, in any monarch, reach that height of depravity, as to warrant, in revolted subjects, this last act of extraordinary jurisdiction. That illusion, if it be an illusion, which teaches us to pay a sacred regard to the persons of princes, is so salutary, that to dissipate it by the formal trial and punishment of a sovereign, will have more pernicious effects upon the people, than the example of justice can be

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supposed to have a beneficial influence upon princes, by checking their career of tyranny. 'Tis dangerous too, by these examples, to reduce princes to despair, or bring matters to such extremities against persons endowed with great power, as to leave them no resources, but in the most violent and most sanguinary councils. This general position being established, it must, however, be observed, that no reader, almost of any party or principle, was ever shocked, when he red, in antient history, that the Roman senate voted Nero, their absolute sovereign, to be a public enemy, and, even without trial, condemned him to the severest and most ignominious punishment; such a punishment, as the meanest Roman citizen was, by the laws, exempted from. The crimes of that bloody tyrant are so enormous, that they break thro' all rules; and extort a confession, that such a dethroned prince is no longer superior to his people, and can no longer plead, in his own defence, laws, which were established for conducting the ordinary course of administration. But when we pass from the case of Nero to that of Charles, the great disproportion, or rather total contrariety of characters, immediately strikes us; and we stand astonished, that, amongst a civilized people, so much virtue could ever meet with so fatal a catastrophe. History, the great mistress of wisdom, furnishes examples of all kinds; and every prudential, as well as moral precept, may be authorized by those events, which her enlarged mirror is able to present to us. From the memorable revolutions, which passed in England during this period, we may naturally deduce the same useful lesson, which Charles himself, in his latter years, inferred; that it is very dangerous for princes to assume more authority, than the laws have allowed them. But, it must be confessed, that these events furnish us with another instruction, no less natural and no less useful, concerning the madness of the people, the furies of fanaticism, and the danger of mercenary armies.

In order to close this part of British history, it is also necessary to relate the dissolution of the monarchy in England: That event followed soon after the death of the

monarch. When the peers met upon the day, appointed in their adjournment, they entered upon business, and sent down some votes to the commons, of which the latter deigned not to take the least notice. In a few days, the lower house passed a vote, that they should make no more addresses to the house of peers, nor receive any more from them; and that that house was useless and dangerous, and was therefore to be abolished. A like vote passed with regard to the monarchy; and 'tis remarkable, that Martin, a furious republican, in the debate on this question, confessed, that, if they desired a king, the last was as proper as any gentleman in England.<sup>17</sup> The commons formed a new great seal, on which that assembly was represented with this legend, **ON THE FIRST YEAR OF FREEDOM, BY GOD'S BLESSING, RESTORED, 1648.** The forms of all public business were changed, from the king's name, to that of the keepers of the liberties of England. And it was declared high treason to proclaim or any otherways acknowledge Charles Stuart, commonly called Prince of Wales.

The Princess Elizabeth the commons intended to bind apprentice to a button-maker: The Duke of Gloucester was to be taught some other mechanical employment. But the former soon died; of grief, as is supposed, for her father's tragical end: The latter was, by Cromwel, sent beyond seas.

The King's statue, in the Exchange, was thrown down; and on the pedestal these words were inscribed: **EXIT TYRANNUS, REGUM ULTIMUS;** *the tyrant is gone, the last of the kings.*

Duke Hamilton was tried by a new high court of justice, as Earl of Cambridge in England; and condemned for high treason. This sentence, which was certainly very hard, but which ought to save his memory from all imputations of treachery to his master, was executed on a scaffold, erected before Westminster hall. Lord Capel underwent the same fate. Both these Noblemen had escaped from prison, but were afterwards discovered and taken. To all the sol-

17. Walker's history of independency, part 2.

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licitations of their friends for pardon, the generals and parliamentary leaders still replied, that it was certainly the intention of Providence they should suffer; since it had permitted them to fall into their enemies hands, after they had once recovered their liberty.

The Earl of Holland lost his life by a like sentence. Tho' of a polite and courtly behavior, he died lamented by no party. His ingratitude to the King, and his frequent changing of sides were regarded as great stains on his memory. The Earl of Norwich and Sir John Owen, being condemned by the same court, were pardoned by the commons.

The King left six children; three males, Charles born in 1630, James Duke of Yorke, born in 1633, Henry Duke of Gloucester, born in 1641; and three females, Mary Princess of Orange, born 1631, Elizabeth, born 1635, and Henrietta, afterwards Duchess of Orleans, born at Exeter 1644.

The Archbishops of Canterbury in this reign were Abbot and Laud: The Lord keepers, Williams, bishop of Lincoln, Lord Coventry, Lord Finch, Lord Littleton, Sir Richard Lane; the Lord admirals, the Duke of Buckingham and the Earl of Northumberland; the Lord high treasurers, the Earl of Marlborough, the Earl of Portland, Juxon bishop of London, Lord Cottington; the secretaries of state, Lord Conway, Sir Albertus Moreton, Coke, Sir Harry Vane, Lord Falkland, Lord Digby, Sir Edward Nicholas.

It may be expected that we should here make mention of the *Icon Basiliké*, a work published in the King's name a few days after his execution. It seems almost impossible, in the controverted parts of history, to say any thing which will satisfy the zealots of both parties: But with regard to this question, it is difficult for an historian to fix any opinion, which will be intirely to his own satisfaction. The proofs brought to evince that this work is or is not the King's, are so convincing, that, if an impartial reader peruses any one side apart,<sup>18</sup> he will think it impossible, that arguments

18. See on the one hand Toland's *Amyntor*, and on the other Wagstaffe's *Vindication of the royal martyr*, 3d edition along with

could be produced, sufficient to counter-ballance so strong an evidence: And when he compares both sides, he will be at a loss to fix any determination. Should an absolute suspense of judgment be found difficult or disagreeable in so interesting a question, I must confess, that I should incline to give the preference to the arguments of the royalists. The testimonies, which prove that performance to be the King's, seem rather more numerous, certain, and direct, than those on the other side. This is the case, even if we consider the external evidence: But when we weigh the internal, derived from the style and composition, there is no manner of comparison. These meditations, in elegance, purity, neatness, and simplicity, resemble exactly the genius of those performances, which we know with certainty to have flowed from the royal pen: But are so unlike the bombast, perplexed, rhetorical, and corrupt style of Dr Gauden, to whom they are ascribed, that no human testimony seems sufficient to convince us, that he was the author. Yet all the evidences, which would rob the King of that honor, tend to prove, that Dr Gauden had the merit of writing so fine a performance, and the infamy of imposing it on the world for the King's.

It is not easy to conceive the general compassion excited towards the King, by the publishing, in so critical a juncture, a work so full of piety, meekness, and humanity. Many have not scrupled to ascribe to that book the subsequent restoration of the royal family. Milton compares its effects to those which were operated on the tumultuous Romans by Anthony's reading to them the will of Caesar. The *Icon* passed thro' fifty editions in a twelvemonth; and independent of the great interest taken in it by the nation, as the

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Young's addition. We may remark, that Lord Clarendon's total silence with regard to this subject, in so full a history, composed in vindication of the King's measures and character, forms a very strong presumption on Toland's side, and a presumption of which that author was ignorant; the works of the noble historian not being then published. Bishop Burnet's testimony too must be allowed of weight against the *Icon*.

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supposed production of their murdered sovereign, it must be acknowledg'd the best prose composition, which, at the time of its publication, was to be found in the English language.

*The End of the First Volume*





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# HUME

## THE HISTORY GREAT BRITAIN

THE REIGNS OF JAMES I AND

Hume's *History of Great Britain*, published in the middle of the eighteenth century, remained a standard work for well over a century. It is a great piece, even if its author is now better known for his *Treatise of Human Nature*. Grounded on a sociological view of the 'progress of mankind', Hume's is perhaps the most European of all the classic narrative histories of Britain. Moreover it embraces far more than the merely political, and it was Adam Smith who pointed out that Hume was the first historian to deduce political effects from commercial and industrial causes.

This volume, covering the years 1603-49, was the first to be written and was published as a self-contained entity. Hume's own view was that it was 'by far the best', because the subject admitted of 'greater nicety of reasoning and more acute distinctions'.

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*The cover shows a detail from Weesop's imaginary reconstruction of the execution of Charles I (Collection of Lord Primrose, on loan to the Scottish National Portrait Gallery)*

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